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Continuing

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The Historical Outlook

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READERS AND TEACHERS OF HISTORY AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES

Continuing The History Teacher's Magazine

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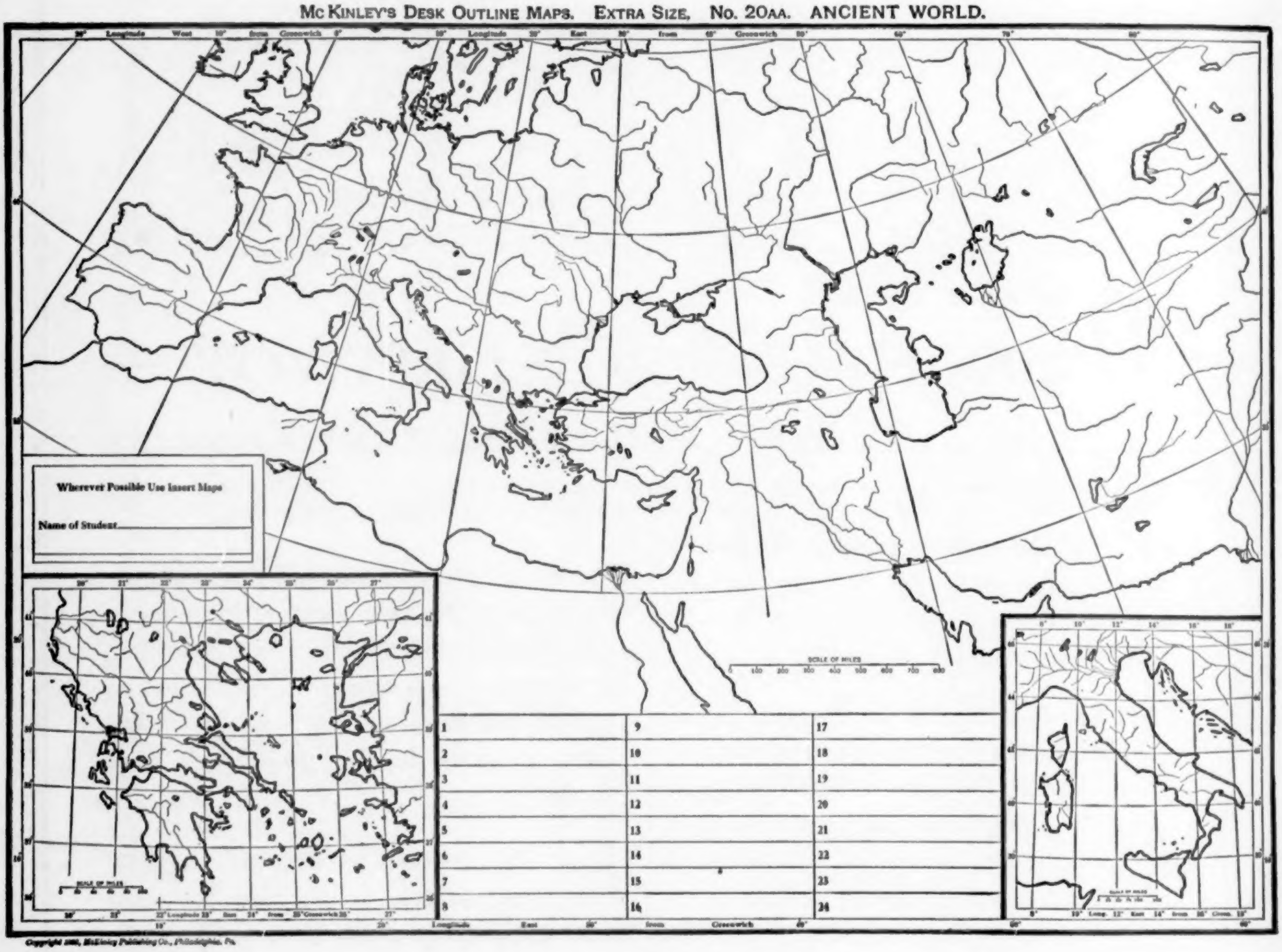

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Does the New-Type Test Measure Results of Instruction in the Social Studies?

A Report of an Experiment

BY PROFESSORS A. C. KREY AND EDGAR B. WESLEY, UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

Teachers of the social studies, history, civics, economics, and sociology, have long been puzzled about the efficacy of so-called standardized tests now in use as measures of achievement in their subjects. They have an uneasy feeling that the tests do not really tap the pupil's knowledge of the subject or register with accuracy the progress of the pupil in his mastery of the subject. They are troubled by the fact that on most tests the pupils distribute themselves as they did on so-called intelligence tests. Since a pure nonsense test might show the same distribution the teachers are generally uncertain as to the exact relation of average tests to the subject which is under consideration.

The use of the new-type test with its syncopated sampling of a wide range of material appears to have become established as a device of administrators for their periodic audit of efficiency in instruction. The longer essay type of test from which the teachers feel that they glean a more accurate knowledge of the pupil's progress has been discarded as too cumbersome, to expensive, and too subjective.

Under such conditions it seems of the utmost importance that any tests which are used should be tests which do bear a very definite relation to the pupil's progress in the subjects studied. If the fear of the teachers that the tests now generally used are merely modified intelligence tests is justified, then the pupils may proceed through grade after grade and appear to have done satisfactory work without actually penetrating below the surface of any of the subjects. Presumably such tests would then have a purely negative value. They would indicate that the pupil's intelligence had remained about the same as it was at the beginning and that the added year of work or the particular course pursued had not seriously damaged this I.Q. Neither public nor administration desires such testing. If John Doe has studied a course in civics they want to know whether he has learned what he should about government. And only such tests as will show this should be used.

The experiment herein described has two stages. The first represents an effort to discover whether there is any real basis for the fears which good teachers generally have expressed regarding tests now in use.

An examination of existing tests indicated that they dealt chiefly, if not exclusively, in what teachers of the social studies would characterize as information items and definitions, primarily the former. These tests were usually brief enough to be covered in a single class period. They also seemed to be based upon the theory that the most important items of information should be used.

For the purposes of this experiment the field of Modern History was selected because it was generally taught, because it was regarded as relatively difficult, and because it was unusually rich in information items. A test was constructed on the principles indicated in the preceding paragraph by several persons who had had some teaching experience. When completed, the test was submitted to a number of teachers actually engaged in teaching modern history in a large school system. They were asked to evaluate the test in comparison with others they had seen. The judgment of these teachers agreed on the main points, (1) that this test was somewhat long, (2) was relatively hard, but (3) was eminently fair in the kind of information involved. Two teachers suggested that there was a relatively large thought element in the test.

While the test was in progress of construction arrangements were made with Mr. C. W. Boardman, Principal of the University of Minnesota High School, to find students about to graduate who had not taken the course in modern history. Five such students were found and these agreed to take part in the experiment. They were excused from all classes during one week near the close of the school year. They were provided with several of the most widely used high school textbooks and one or two college textbooks in the field for reference purposes. Arrangements were also made to place at their disposal the help of experienced teachers for at least one hour

INFORMATION TEST

Score	College	High School	Selected High School	Experimental Group
154	x			
136	x			
122				x*
120				
118	x			
116	xxx			
114	x			
112	x			
110				
108	x			
	x			
106	xx			
104	x			
102				
100				
98				
96	x	x		
	xx			
94	x			x
92	x			
90				
88		x		
86		x		x
84	xx			
	x			
82	xx		x	
80	x	x	x	
78	x		x	x
			x	
76	x	x	x	
74		xx		x
			xx	
72			xx	
70	x			
68	x			
66				
64		x		
	xx			
62	x		x	
60		x		
58		x		
56				
		xx		
54	x	x		
52				
		x		
50	x	x		
		xx		
48		x	x	
46		x		
		xx		
44		xx		
42				
		xx		
40		xx		
38		x		
36		x		
34				
32				
30		x		
28		x		
26		x		
24				
22		x		
20		x		

* After this pupil completed the test it was learned that he had had a modern history course in another school.

each day. The help of these teachers was optional for the students in the experimental group and after the second day they preferred to go off by themselves and made no use of this teaching assistance. At the end of the week they took the test covering the year's work. The same test was also given simultaneously to two tenth-grade classes finishing their year's work in the course and to a section of a first-year class in college which was likewise finishing a year's work in modern history. The performance of the four groups was then compared with the results as shown on the graph, *Information Test.*

The high school authorities evidently succeeded well in motivating the experimental group, for the median score of that group placed them just below the median of the college class and well above the high school classes. On inspection of the records of the various groups involved, it is conceivable that the experimental group might have stood at the top had the college class been an average instead of an extraordinary select group, as it proved to have been. The intelligence and achievement records of the members of the experimental group indicated that they were all above the average, but only one in what is commonly rated the gifted group.

The test proved to have been somewhat long as the teachers had predicted. It was also hard. The results also indicated mechanical imperfections in the construction of the test which made the scoring rather difficult. The test likewise appeared much more formidable than it really was, for close inspection will show that none of the questions involved much more mental effort than that of recall. The relationships were kept down to the more simple bonds of time and place. The experimental group had the advantage of going over the whole year's work in the week, while the other classes were caught in their normal stride of reviewing only the last semester's work. The experimental group also had some advantage in motivation.

What conclusions, if any, may be drawn from this experiment? The imperfections in the test, the small number of cases, the differences in motivation and preparation for the test might all militate against any extended conclusions. There are, however, a number of inferences which may legitimately be drawn from it. Among these the following may be cited.

1. That there is little or no relation between the performance of pupils on a short test of most important items in an extended field and systematic instruction.

2. That there is a high correlation between such performance and intelligence quotients—in other words such a test measures or reflects the same quality or quantity measured by intelligence tests.

It does seem difficult to escape these inferences. If a group of pupils of ordinary ability can, within a week, and by their own reading, acquire sufficient information not only to pass such a test but to score as well as pupils who have studied the subject for one or two years, there is something wrong in accepting such a test as a measure of instruction. The doubts which teachers have expressed about the efficacy of such tests would seem to be justified. For those who watched this experiment in the making, these inferences have all the force of conclusions. As all of the persons concerned in its progress have since engaged in school work, either as teachers or supervisors, it may be significant that not one of them has questioned the findings on the basis of more recent experience.

Since all indications seemed to point to the conclusion that an information test of important items did not reach beyond the threshold of instruction—was in fact no test of instruction at all, an effort was made to discover if a new-type test could be devised which would reveal results of instruction.

The same teachers who questioned the value of the standardized information tests usually included in their observations the suggestion that pupils sometimes knew the facts but showed lack of understanding. This was used as the cue for the next stage in the experiment.

Is there any difference between facts and ideas, between information and understanding in the social studies? Is it possible to have one without the other?

The social studies are concerned primarily with relations between people, secondly with relations between people regarding material matters, and with relations between man and the material universe only in so far as those affect the relations between people. The latter, man's relations with the material universe, is the concern of other subjects in the curriculum of the schools, such as geography and the sciences. History, political science, sociology, and economics are the social studies commonly taught below the senior college. Anthropology, law, and education are usually taught later. The sciences, both biological and physical, and technology of various kinds may deal with influences and causes affecting social relations, but are not social science.

Time and place afford convenient concrete boundaries within which such relationship may be expressed. Material circumstances often constitute the focus of such relationship serving as cause, occasion, or accident for their expression. Caesar's crossing of the Rubicon, not a startling feat in itself, serves as a convenient marker in the great political change whereby the government of Rome was transformed from a republic into a principate and ultimately into an empire. The battle of Bunker Hill was not much of a military exploit in itself, yet the changed relations between British and Americans which it exemplified and further provoked were of the utmost importance. That Columbus discovered America is a piece of information often reiterated and widely disseminated. The importance of that statement lies, first, in the relationship of Columbus to America, and, even more, in the consequences to European society which followed it.

Such illustrations might be multiplied indefinitely to make clear the statement that social ideas involve relationship, immediate and remote. Social information, though including specific relationship of two or more persons, likewise includes the persons related and the materials about which the relationship centers. The emphasis is usually placed upon the material and the specific individuals. Information tends to emphasize the nouns, whereas the ideas of relationship are usually contained in the verbs. This distinction is not absolute, but it is a practical one.

The teacher of the social studies hopes that one of the results of instruction will be the acquisition of a habit of looking for relationship as well as the more direct concrete items of information. The teacher hopes further that this habit will lead likewise to the practice of relating new information and ideas to those already acquired. Perhaps we have here the essence of *understanding* as distinguished from *knowledge*. The daily news and the day's personal experiences and observations are usually collections of more or less unrelated items of information. This material is, or can be, remembered and retained for some time, some of it for a long time without troubling to relate it beyond the obvious. But it is only really understood if it is related to other information which the person already possesses. Degree of understanding is probably a matter of the extent to which that material is related. Carl Becker once read a paper entitled "What is a historical fact?" in which he carried a single statement to its remoter connections both past and later. He chose the fact of Caesar's crossing the Rubicon and connected it with the series of political developments in Rome which reached back to the days of the real republic and also connected it with succeeding developments as far as the establishment of the absolutism of Diocletian. It was an excellent illustration of a very advanced degree of understanding.

The process of acquiring information and understanding, if this practical distinction be accepted, likewise presents important differences. Information might include the following items: *persons, places, circumstances, definitions, diagrammatic material, categorical statements.*

The list might be extended to include all matter which is committed to memory and fixed by the simple process of repetition against a background of no greater emotional urge than the prospect of meeting course requirements. A child of four or five can be taught almost any combination of words in this way, such as names of persons or passages from Plato's *Republic* or Darwin's *Origin of Species*. There are limits to the amount which a given child can memorize and it might not be good sense to afflict him in this way very much. This possibility is here suggested only to emphasize the relative ease with which information is acquired.

Understanding comes only with greater effort. The idea, or the immediate relationship which usually appears in statements of information, makes a less vivid appeal than do the material things involved. There is this psychological disadvantage. Then, too, the acquisition of the idea usually requires some active thought. Usually it involves a comparison with some previous learning even where no effort is made to establish more remote relations. When the latter is attempted the effort is proportionately increased. In that case the person is compelled to recall an increased amount of information and establish the relationship of the newly acquired material to it. In the process both the new and the old items of information assume somewhat enlarged proportions. This effort is usually so great that the person does not undertake it unless there is some special urge to do so. This urge may be stimulated by the teacher in various ways including patient exemplification of the process often repeated.

Following this line of argument and reason an attempt was made to devise a test of the new type which might catch this distinction. Recurrent social relationships usually attain the dignity of verbal symbols and, though the more complex relationships are sometimes expressed in extended phrases, it is surprising how many of them are expressed in a single word or a very brief phrase, such as supply and demand, diplomacy, supreme court, internationalism, executive officer, Federal Reserve System. The field of modern history was again used and those ideas of social relationship which were especially emphasized in that course and were expressed in a single term or brief phrase were used for the purposes of the test. Various forms of

questions were tried but the multiple-choice form of five options was finally hit upon as most satisfactory. An effort was made to make the questions depend as little as possible upon the recall of specific information items, the question furnishing the specific information where that was needed. The purely memoriter recall of definition was also avoided both by avoiding cue words and by requiring a relative choice among several options which applied somewhat. Miss Mary Gold and Miss Dorothy Bovee of the University High School, University of Minnesota, aided in the construction of this test.

For comparative purposes an effort was made to reproduce as nearly as possible the conditions which surrounded the test of information. High school seniors who had not had modern history were given a week to study the textbooks as before. At the end of the week this experimental group was tested simultaneously with two tenth-grade classes just finishing modern history and a group of college students approximating the group on the earlier test. As a further check, chiefly as a basis of comparison with the previous experimental group, the information test was also given to this experimental squad. The score on the information test indicated that this second experimental group was as highly motivated as the first, for their median score was almost the same, actually a bit higher than the first group. The results of this test are indicated on the graph entitled *Ideas Test*.

Ideas Test

Score	Experimental Group	Selected High School	High School	College
90		x		x
88				xx
			x	
86		x	x	
84				
82		x		
80				
				x
78		x		x
		x		xx
76		x	x	xxx
		xx		x
74		x	x	x
72			x	x
70	x	x	x	x
		x		x
68	xx	x	x	x
66				x
64		x		x
62			xxx	xx
				x
60		x	xx	x
58		x	xx	
	x			
56	x		xx	
54		xx	x	
		x		
52		x	xxxx	
			xxx	
50			xxxxx	
48		xx	xx	
			xx	
46	x		xxx	
			x	
44			xx	
		x	x	
42		x	xxx	
40				
			xxx	
38			xx	
			xxx	
36			x	
			x	
34			x	
32				
30				
28			x	
26			x	
24				
22			x	
20				
18			x	
16				
14			x	
12			x	
10			x	

The results were surprising in several respects. In the first place the college group, though at least a term had intervened since they had completed their modern history, nevertheless scored highest. This was the more surprising since only one of the group had received an average grade of "B," all the rest having averaged a mediocre "C" or even less for the two terms in that course. The previous college group had been an exceptional class, twenty-five of the thirty-five having maintained an average of "B" or better for all three terms. Yet this mediocre group held the lead by a more comfortable margin than the earlier group.

In the second place not one of the experimental group was able to rank with the best of the college class. This too should have been surprising in view of the fact that on the information test one of the experimental group was excelled by only two unusually able college students. Neither lack of ability nor lack of application could account for this. The intelligence rating of the best of this experimental group was higher than that of the earlier group. The performance of this squad on the same information tests was at least as high, the average being slightly higher. On the ideas test, however, not only did the majority of the college class, most of them inferior in ability, but nearly half of the select high school class and more than five per cent of the unselected high school group score as high or higher than the best of the experimental group. The two latter groups were predominantly tenth-graders, whereas the experimental group had completed the full twelve grades.

On the ideas test the experimental group ranked third, only the unselected high school class having a lower average, whereas on the information test the experimental group ranked second, only slightly below the college class which was an extraordinarily superior group.

Another observation which may or may not have especial significance is afforded by the performance of the two college classes. The results on the information test correlated much more closely with the intelligence rating of the students than did those on the ideas test. Apparently students of relatively low ability, if especially interested in the social science field, as indicated by their larger selection of courses in it, scored as high as very superior students who had selected a minimum amount of work in this field.

It is evident that the two tests measure or sample different values. Such imperfections as they contained (and these were many) militated against, rather than for, sharper differentiation. The ideas test called for more direct information recall than the authors of the test had wished, and some of the more complicated questions on the information test had to be thrown out because it was too difficult to apply a uniform marking standard. The small number in the experimental squad chosen largely on a voluntary basis tended likewise to lessen the differentiation. That there

should have been as great a differentiation in the performance on the two tests as there was has led the authors to believe that it might have been even greater had conditions been more satisfactory. It is their hope that others will correct their mistakes and try this experiment under more favorable conditions.

The experiment seems to corroborate the thesis that facts and ideas are not synonymous and that the possession of information can not imply equal understanding. Not only does it indicate a difference, but the experiment also suggests (1) that facts are more readily—much more readily—grasped than ideas, and (2) that ideas once grasped are more permanent acquisitions. The performance of the second college group, mediocre in ability and at least a term removed from active study of modern history, suggests the latter conclusion most strikingly.

As an additional check upon these findings the ideas test was applied to the third year pupils early in the following autumn. Of the fifty-two pupils who took the test twenty-four had had no previous course in history, fifteen had taken ancient history, while thirteen had had modern history the previous year. The results of the tests are accordingly presented on this basis.

There are clearly a number of differences in the behavior of this ideas test from that of the information test.

1. The experimental group in its week of study made little if any gain on the ideas test.

2. Pupils of high intelligence rating, whether in the experimental squad or in the group which had had no instruction in modern history, did not score anywhere near the performance of pupils of equal rating who had had instruction.

3. Pupils of as low intelligence rating as 98, 99, and 100 who had had the modern history scored as high as some of 120 I.Q., who had done no work in the field. In other words a strictly average pupil who had had modern history did as well as the superior pupil who had not.

These differences would seem to indicate that this ideas test was measuring or sampling something more than native intelligence, was in fact striking at something that was done in teaching.

Before that conclusion is accepted some questions might be raised about the test itself. A casual glance might suggest that this was a mere vocabulary test. If it were, the seniors in the experimental group should have done better than the sophomores in the high school who were of equal ability They failed to do so. Likewise there should have been less difference among the juniors who took the test in the autumn, or differences only on the basis of individual ability. Instead there was a marked shift in favor of those who had had modern history. The test is not, clearly, a mere vocabulary test.

Perhaps one explanation of these apparent conclusions may be exemplified in a simple illustration. Let us select from the fact that "Columbus discovered America" only the simple idea of discovery, omitting the more important ideas of relationship which the statement involves. That one fact, if it were the only

IDEAS TEST—AUTUMN RETRIAL

Score	No History	Ancient but no Modern History	Modern History
94			x
76			x
74			
			xx
72			x
70			
68			x
66			x
64			x
62			
60		x	
58	x		
56	x		
54			
52		x	
50			
48			x
	x		
46	xx	x	x
		x	
44		x	x
	xx		
42	x	x	x
		x	
40	xx	x	x
		x	
38	x	x	
	x		
36	x	x	
	x		
34	x	x	
32		x	
30	x		
28	xx		
26			
	xx		
24	x	x	
22	x		
20	x	x	
18			
16	x		

instance of a discovery in the pupil's experience or knowledge, would not convey a clear conception of the idea. He would be unable to determine how much of Columbus and how much of America was essential. He might be in the position of Lamb's hero in the essay on roast pig—having to burn down a house every time he desired his roast. But if the pupil had also become acquainted with the fact that Balboa discovered the Pacific Ocean, De Soto discovered the Mississippi River, Peary discovered the North Pole, Harvey discovered the circulation of the blood, and Halley discovered the comet which bears his name, he would have a much clearer conception of the idea of discovery. If in addition he had met instances of finding and instances of invention, his comprehension of the idea of discovery would be rendered even more precise.

If this is a correct explanation, this type of test catches the patient effort of the teachers to have the pupils recognize the same idea in its normal range of settings and is to that extent a test of instruction.

It is not likely, however, that all of the explanation is to be found in the foregoing illustration. Others may see conclusions and inferences which have escaped those who conducted this experiment. For this reason those items of the test which were found effective are here reproduced in order of increasing difficulty. Eighteen of the items of the test proved defective and have been omitted.* The editors of THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK invite teachers to send in any supplementary comments which a critical scrutiny of these test items may suggest.

* These have been listed on following pages.

Gold-Bovee-Wesley Test in Modern History

Directions: A number of incomplete statements appear below. Following each, there are five possible choices. Read and select the number of the word or phrase which best completes the sentence. Place this number in the parentheses at the right. The two samples will illustrate what you are to do.

Samples:

a. A battleship is a kind of
1. passenger liner 2. rowboat 3. schooner 4. war boat 5. yacht. (4)

b. Policemen are
1. aggressive men 2. brave men 3. large men 4. officials in large cities 5. officers of the law. (5)

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1. In modern times most countries agree that the money for operating schools should be raised by
1. philanthropy 2. the tariff 3. the church 4. taxes 5. the trustees. ( )
2. The whole series of developments connected with the change from hand labor to machine production is known as
1. mass production 2. large scale wage system 3. the industrial revolution 4. trade unionism 5. mechanical evolution. ( )
3. An agreement establishing a temporary cessation of war is called
1. a coup d'etat 2. an entente 3. an armistice 4. an edict 5. an ultimatum. ( )
4. During the World War Lloyd George formed a coalition cabinet, a term which describes a cabinet that
1. is composed of statesmen with strongly militaristic tendencies 2. favors conscriptions 3. is composed of men representing various parties 4. is composed of men of allied countries. ( )
5. A legislative body divided into two houses is spoken of as
1. a chamber 2. a parliament 3. a divided congress 4. a bicameral body 5. a two-party house. ( )
6. In Europe the chief responsible officer of the government is called the
1. viceroy 2. minister plenipotentiary 3. prime minister 4. ambassador 5. consul.
7. The production of goods with the assistance of mechanical power is called
1. popular mechanics 2. the textile industry 3. labor and capital 4. the factory system 5. mechanical progress. ( )
8. One who believes in no government is called
1. a revolutionist 2. a traitor 3. a socialist 4. an anarchist 5. a reactionary. ( )
9. The policy by which an autocratic government provides social and economic advantages for the people is called
1. home rule 2. democracy 3. paternalism 4. exploitation 5. social service. ( )
10. The arrangement by which the government of one country exercises jurisdiction over its citizens within the territory of another is known as
1. extradition 2. extraterritoriality 3. judicial decision 4. sphere of influence 5. concession. ( )
11. Countries regulate foreign competition with domestic products by means of
1. boycotts 2. strikes 3. blockades 4. tariffs 5. coalitions. ( )
12. The policy of a nation not to help either side in an international dispute or war is called
1. intervention 2. indifference 3. balance of power 4. domestic preoccupation 5. neutrality. ( )
13. Belgium, Switzerland, and Poland are
(1. neutral 2. frontier 3. border 4. buffer 5. warlike) states. ( )
14. A council made up of representatives from various occupations is called a
1. forum 2. quorum 3. diet 4. fascisti 5. soviet. ( )
15. When a country has no foreign support, either diplomatic or military, its conditior is described as one of
1. non-coöperation 2. international isolation 3. neutrality 4. hostility to foreigners 5. a backward people. ( )
16. The practice of enrolling all able-bodied men for military service is called
1. militarism 2. Junkerism 3. conscription 4. imperialism 5. engrossment. ( )
17. Asiatic peoples might be correctly termed
1. illiterate 2. Occidental 3. aggressive 4. non-progressive 5. Oriental. ( )
18. The growth of a country's area is called
1. extraterritoriality 2. imperialism 3. expansion 4. open door policy 5. enclosure. ( )
19. A loose organization of states is called a
1. union 2. nation 3. country 4. concordat 5. confederation. ( )

20. Modern progress is based upon
    1. authority 2. tradition 3. laws 4. research 5. culture. ( )
21. In Europe, the officer or secretary whose duty it is to give advice in regard to relations with other countries and to manage diplomatic relations is usually called the
    1. secretary of state 2. foreign minister 3. ambassador 4. premier 5. chancellor of the exchequer ( )
22. The owner who leaves an estate to be managed by hired overseers or superintendents while he resides at a distance is known as
    1. a man without a country 2. a journeyman 3. an absentee landlord 4. a gentleman farmer 5. a peasant proprietor. ( )
23. The one who administers the government while the heir to the throne is not yet of age is called
    1. an interregnum 2. a regicide 3. a regent 4. a minor 5. a government agent. ( )
24. When a dependency is granted the right to manage local affairs, it is said to have
    1. popular sovereignty 2. appellate jurisdiction 3. the right of eminent domain 4. home rule 5. dominant power. ( )
25. A government in which the king's powers are defined or limited by fundamental laws is called
    1. an absolute monarchy 2. a constitutional monarchy 3. a dual monarchy 4. an empire 5. a dictatorship. ( )
26. The building in which foreign diplomats have their offices is known as the
    1. legation 2. League of Nations 3. state house 4. capitol 5. diplomatic home. ( )
27. In European countries the middle classes—that is, those people between the nobility and the working class, including both business and professional people—are often spoken of as the
    1. middlemen 2. bourgeoise 3. industrialists 4. nouveau riche 5. artisans. ( )
28. Florence Nightingale is associated with
    1. woman suffrage 2. civil rights for women 3. social reforms 4. war relief 5. education. ( )
29. An agreement between two or more countries for the purpose of carrying on a unified policy is called
    1. a doctrine 2. a platform 3. an alliance 4. anegotiation 5. a centralized administration. ( )
30. A regicide is
    1. a murderer of a king 2. Pasteur's disinfectant 3. a circuit judge 4. acid used in printing 5. an aide-de-camp of a king. ( )
31. Publicity for international negotiations is called
    1. propaganda 2. censorship 3. freedom of contract 4. guaranteed neutrality 5. open diplomacy. ( )
32. One of the greatest problems connected with the rise of the factory system is
    1. capitalism 2. diseases 3. division of labor 4. low wages 5. unemployment. ( )
33. The phrase "status quo ante bellum" refers to
    1. an order for an election on the question of war 2. a group of warlike states 3. the condition that preceded the war 4. the condition of the war 5. a writ which starts a suit. ( )
34. A canton is a
    1. new measure of weight used after the French Revolution 2. a Swiss political unit 3. a container for a soldier 4. a French gun 5. the name for a Chinese province. ( )
35. Belief in the abolition of private property is called
    1. anarchism 2. communism 3. paternalism 4. nihilism 5. liberalism. ( )
36. Balance of power is a term applied to
    1. the separation of church and state 2. a system of checks and balances 3. the Napoleonic legend 4. the approximate equality of imports and exports 5. a system of alliances. ( )
37. The withdrawing of troops from foreign soil is correctly termed 1. evacuation 2. expatriation 3. excavation 4. demilitarization 5. demobilization. ( )
38. A country like Japan, where the population is largely of the same race, has the same general customs and traditions, and speaks the same language, is said to be
    1. heterogeneous 2. ingenious 3. reactionary 4. versatile 5. homogeneous. ( )
39. When the resources, natural or otherwise, of one country are utilized by another country for the benefit of the latter without much, if any, regard for the welfare of the former, we call the process
    1. laissez-faire 2. free trade 3. exploitation 4. decentralization 5. conscription.
40. The bone of contention between Germany and France was
    1. Schleswig 2. Silesia 3. Alsace-Lorraine 4. Belgium 5. Bavaria. ( )
41. The sending of the French army into Spain to put down the revolt which broke out in that country in 1820 is an example of
    1. jingoism 2. evacuation 3. insurrection 4. concession 5. intervention. ( )
42. The Russians speak of our government as capitalistic because

1. it favors private ownership of property 2. our legislative, executive, and judicial departments are separate 3. we pay the president and our other national officers large salaries 4. we are insisting that European governments pay their debts to us 5. the amount of gold in this country is greater than in any other. ( )

43. A man who lives on a small daily wage is said to be a member of the
1. proletariat 2. peasantry 3. bourgeoise 4. Bolsheviki 5. capitalist class. ( )

44. The office and functions of a minister of state or cabinet member are spoken of as his
1. portfolio 2. appointment 3. responsibility 4. policy 5. exchequer ( )

45. The official representative of a country who looks after the material interests of its citizens in some foreign city is called
1. an ambassador 2. an agent 3. a mercantilist 4. a mercenary 5. a consul. ( )

46. Descartes, Spinoza, Leibnitz, Locke, and other men sought to formulate fundamental principles about life and the universe. Such men are called
1. inventors 2. scientists 3. theologians 4. philosophers 5. psychologists.

47. The identifying papers of an official, such as appointment, recommendations, and instructions, are called his
1. mandates 2. limitations 3. secret agreements 4. credentials 5. propaganda.

48. Rulers often classified according to families. In Egypt the classifications were numbered from I to XXX. In England we speak of the House of Tudor or Stuart. Such a group of related rulers is called
1. a despotism 2. paternalism 3. a régime 4. home rule 5. a dynasty.

49. A church supported by a system of taxation enforced by the government is said to be
1. established 2. orthodox 3. dogmatic 4. centralized 5. theosophical. ( )

50. A man who is strongly opposed to war is called
1. a militarist 2. an aggressor 3. a humanist 4. a pacifist 5. an ambassador. ( )

51. The Old Régime was
1. a period of English history 2. the restricted diet of French peasants 3. the period before the French Revolution 4. an early French dynasty 5. the French G.A.R. ( )

52. The system of conducting negotiations and arranging treaties or understandings between countries is called ( )
1. the consular service 2. the balance of power 3. diplomacy 4. representative government 5. portfolios.

53. The British ministers are responsible to Parliament, a statement which means that they
1. are members of Parliament 2. hold office only so long as they are supported by Parliament 3. are elected by Parliament 4. report the policies favored by the king to Parliament 5. actually do all the work of Parliament. ( )

54. The aid given by the people of the United States to the Russians when they were threatened with famine is an example of modern.
1. chauvinism 2. humanitarianism 3. hedonism. 4. exploitation 5. humanism. ( )

55. The social contract was
1. an agreement between kings and parliaments 2. a religious constitution 3. an agreement between employers and employees 4. a contract which bound laborers for a term of years 5. a political theory of the origin of government. ( )

56. A coup d'etat is
1. a discovery of vast mineral resources 2. the exclusive publication of astounding news 3. the sudden overthrow of the existing form of government 4. a slump in the French stock market 5. a corner on the wheat market. ( )

57. A protocol is a kind of
1. warship 2. treaty 3. revenue cutter 4. coaling station 5. diplomatic conference. ( )

58. Improvements of conditions and opportunities, especially in regard to education, health, and working conditions, are spoken of as
1. improved sanitation 2. a reformation 3. evolution 4. social reforms 5. a higher standard of living. ( )

59. Any material, true or false, used to influence opinion is called
1. oratory 2. a platform 3. sermonizing 4. pragmatism 5. propaganda. ( )

60. The early belief in evolution was called
1. natural selection 2. anti-clericalism 3. Darwinism 4. survival of the fittest 5. bigotry. ( )

61. The Chancellor of the Exchequer
1. is the head of the executive department 2. presides over the cabinet 3. has charge of national finances 4. performs public executions 5. is head of the Established Church. ( )

62. The relationship existing between two or more nations when they have amicably settled questions

which caused disagreement and have made arrangements for settling in a similar fashion future disputes is called
1. an offensive alliance 2. balance of power 3. an entente cordiale 4. a defensive alliance 5. a state of neutrality. ( )

63. In some European countries we find clerical parties whose first aim is
1. restoration of the Old Régime 2. to increase the authority of the Church 3. a greater degree of popular self-government 4. centralization of governmental authority 5. restriction of suffrage rights to those with a certain degree of education. ( )

64. The right of a people to decide who shall rule them and in what manner it shall be done is called
1. universal suffrage 2. self-determination 3. revolution 4. mandate 5. dominion status. ( )

65. The spirit of nationalism was violated when
1. Mussolini restricted control of affairs in Italy to the Facists 2. Czar Nicholas I refused to grant a constitution to Russia 3. Metternich compelled Lombardy to accept control by Austrian officials 4. the Boers opposed the desire of the Uitlanders to share in the government 5. when Norway and Sweden were separated. ( )

66. By the term imperialist we mean one
1. who believes in a government in which the monarch has unlimited power 2. who is particularly concerned about the extension of the authority and influence of a country beyond its present boundaries 3. who desires that the ministry be responsible to the king alone 4. who does not approve of the restrictions imposed by a written constitution 5. who believes in imperial conferences. ( )

67. The government regulation of economic affairs, particularly of trade and industry, was called
1. communism 2. laissez-faire 3. mercantilism 4. intervention 5. conservation. ( )

68. The sanctity or unity of a nation's area is known as
1. nationalism 2. a sphere of influence 3. a treaty port 4. territorial integrity 5. a defensive alliance. ( )

69. The laissez-faire theory is held by those favoring
1. a protective tariff 2. non-interference on the part of the government in commercial matters 3. a tariff for revenue only 4. the single-tax system 5. tariff autonomy. ( )

70. Belief in the Church of England as the best form of religious government is called.
1. Catholicism 2. Anglicanism 3. Calvinism 4. Protestantism 5. Humanitarianism. ( )

71. The desire of a people to be independent of other countries and to determine their own form of government is called ( )
1. liberalism 2. emancipation 3. isolation 4. nationalism 5. reactionary. ( )

72. An autocratic ruler who tried to improve the economic and social conditions of his country through his own power was called
1. a reactionary 2. an enlightened despot 3. a liberal 4. a nationalist 5. a philanthropist. ( )

73. The so-called obligation to better the conditions and provide means of progress for conquered or backward peoples is often called
1. the white man's burden 2. kultur 3. imperialism 4. sphere of influence 5. standard of living. ( )

74. In Europe a vote or decree of the people, similar to the referendum in the United States, is called
1. the initiative 2. a mandate 3. a plebiscite 4. a franchise 5. universal suffrage. ( )

75. A government in which the officers or departments are responsible to one head is said to have an administration which is
1. centralized 2. official 3. presidential 4. collective 5. federated. ( )

76. A district in which a foreign nation exercises commercial control is called a
1. sovereign state 2. subject nationality 3. sphere of influence 4. mandate 5. treaty port. ( )

77. The right to vote is called
1. election 2. civic duty 3. license 4. ballot 5. franchise. ( )

78. The aristocratic group in modern Germany were called
1. Kulturkampf 2. Junkers 3. military war lords 4. chancellors 5. sabre rattlers. ( )

79. The deciding note in which one country makes demands of another is called
1. mobilization 2. an ultimatum 3. a protocol 4. a final warrant 5. an entente. ( )

80. The father of modern socialism was
1. Metternich 2. Rousseau 3. Adam Smith 4. Karl Marx 5. Louis Blanc. ( )

81. The sum which the victors force a conquered country to pay is called
1. an annuity 2. an indemnity 3. ultimatum 4. a just price 5. an exchequer. ( )

82. Peoples who have been conquered or absorbed by more powerful countries are referred to as
1. sovereign states 2. subject-nationalities 3. rotten boroughs 4. provinces 5. buffer states. ( )

Defective Items

The following items for various reasons proved to be unreliable:

1. A conspiracy is
   1. a tong war 2. a boycott 3. a plot against a government 4. a plot against a gang 5. a split in a church. ( )
2. The act of assisting in the settlement of international disagreements is called
   1. mediation 2. conspiracy 3. evolution 4. neutrality 5. watchful waiting. ( )
3. When a dispute is settled by referring it to disinterested parties, the process is called
   1. a compromise 2. arbitration 3. compensation 4. a referendum 5. conciliation. ( )
4. A monarchist is
   1. a believer in kings 2. an absolute king 3. an opponent of monarchs 4. an anarchist 5. a regent. ( )
5. Excessive preparation for war, often at the expense of economic and social welfare, is termed
   1. mobilization 2. nationalism 3. militarism 4. anarchism 5. patriotism. ( )
6. A city opened to foreign trade and residence under certain specified regulations is called
   1. a treaty port 2. a legation 3. an open door 4. a sphere of influence 5. a port of entry. ( )

The following items proved to be too difficult:

1. The English called Hindu princes
   1. pashas 2. Mandarins 3. nabobs 4. Brahmans 5. sepoys. ( )
2. The term sovereign nation is applied only to a country in which
   1. there is a king whose powers are limited by a constitution 2. the people are in control 3. there is independence of outside authority 4. an enlightened despot reigns 5. the gold sovereign is the standard of value. ( )
3. Advocacy of an aggressive and warlike policy is
   1. a colonial policy 2. an international crisis 3. an insurrection 4. a revolution 5. jingoism. ( )
4. In the eighteenth century those who believed in a natural rather than a supernatural religion were called
   1. atheists 2. Methodists 3. evolutionists 4. deists 5. reformers. ( )
5. Authority given to a country to supervise the government of another country is called
   1. a mandate 2. a mandamus 3. protectorate 4. sphere of influence 5. dominion. ( )
6. A party which opposes innovations and favors only such policies as have been tested by use is said to be
   1. Progressive 2. Centrist 3. Red 4. Left 5. Right. ( )
7. The phrase "appeal to the country" refers to
   1. campaigns for money 2. the election of members of Parliament 3. official propaganda in favor of a governmental policy 4. war propaganda 5. the struggle over woman suffrage. ( )
8. A violent change in the form or nature of a government constitutes a
   1. coup d'etat 2. revolution 3. restoration 4. reformation 5. civil war. ( )
9. To abrogate means to
   1. abridge 2. repeal 3. abdicate 4. interrogate 5. accuse. ( )
10. The Thirty Years' War was the last of the conflicts known as
    1. feudal wars 2. struggles for supremacy 3. religious wars 4. the wars of conquest 5. dynastic wars. ( )
11. The accountability of an officer to the people or to their representatives is called
    1. responsibility 2. an election 3. popular sovereignty 4. home rule 5. liberalism. ( )
12. An organization of states in which the central government rather than the individual states has the final authority is called
    1. a confederation 2. a league 3. an empire 4. a federation 5. a balance of power. ( )

Information Test—Completion

1. At various times in modern history certain statesmen seem to have dominated in the affairs of Europe. In the blanks below place the names of the men so prominent in the periods designated.

1660–1715 ....

1740–1786 ....

1800–1815 ....

1848–1890 ....

1918–1919 ...., "The Big three."

2. During the past 300 years there have been a number of wars involving more than two European nations. In the blanks below name the ten which you regard as the more important, listing at least three in each of those centuries.

	I	II	III
1628–1728	....	....	....
	....	....	....
	....	....	....
	....	....	....
	....	....	....
1729–1828	....	....	....
	....	....	....
	....	....	....
	....	....	....
	....	....	....
1829–1928	....	....	....
	....	....	....
	....	....	....
	....	....	....
	....	....	....

3. In which of the wars you have just listed did the region now called Belgium figure either as a participant or in the territorial settlement of the treaty following? Under Column II above place the letter B after each war in which Belgium figured and the letter X where Belgium was not involved.
4. Under Column III place the letter A after those wars in which the regions of North America figured and the letter Y where these were not involved.
5. Alsace, situated in the central part of Europe, has led a chequered existence from the days of Charlemagne. In 1648 it was a part of .... In that year .... added it to his dominions. In 1870 .... claimed it by right of conquest. From 1870 to 1914, the desire of .... to regain that territory was one of the disturbing factors in the European situated and is reckoned as one of the chief causes, of the World War. By the peace conference which closed that war, it was awarded to ....
6. The modern period is distinguished by certain great achievements in fields of learning. On the following blanks list the name of the thinker or the achievement in thought suggested.

Circulation of blood discovered by ....

.... discovered by Newton.

Theory of Evolution discovered by ....

Antiseptic surgery developed by ....

.... discovered by Pasteur.

Shorthand communication by wire invented by ....

Vocal communication by wire invented by ....

Wireless communication invented by ....

Utilization of mechanical energy invented by ....

Transportation through air invented by ....

7. The spirit of progress in the relations between nations was advocated in the seventeenth century by .... in his treatise on "Law of Peace and War." In the last half of the nineteenth century a governmental device, ..., was created to deal with disputes between nations. In our century a much more elaborate machinery of government known as .... was established at .... Leadership in its establishment is generally ascribed to .... This spirit of reform took a rationalistic turn in the latter part of the seventeenth century. John Locke was representative of this thought in Great Britain. The French followed along this same line of thinking, (1) .... criticizing the corruption in the church, (2) .... advancing the social contract theory and advocating a return to the simple life, (3) .... expressing his admiration for the government of England in his *Spirit of Laws* and (4) in the editing of the ....

The author of the *Wealth of Nations,* known as the "Father of Political Economy," was .... In 1848 .... followed with his idea of class conflict advocated in his celebrated *Communist Manifesto.* In the interest of the English working classes .... first tried to establish a model factory community. In France .... proposed that the state should create "Social Workshops."

Multiple Choice

1. The (a) British (b) French (c) Dutch finally succeeded in establishing their authority in India.
2. Italy (a) remained neutral (b) was faithful to the Triple Alliance (c) joined the Allied Powers.
3. The World War (a) greatly increased the number of independent states (b) caused many independent states to be absorbed by the great powers (c) did not appreciably alter the status of many states.
4. The Boers were a group of (English, French, Dutch, German) colonists who fought the Boer War with (Portugal, England, France) which resulted in the (independence, union, annexation) of the two Boer republics.
5. The corn laws were (a) laws restricting sale of corn in England (b) a tariff on grain imports (c) laws subsidizing home grain production.
6. Rotten boroughs were (a) depopulated towns sending representatives to Parliament (b) large towns which sent no representatives to Parliament (c) towns with notoriously low morals (d) towns stationary in population which sent representatives to Parliament.
7. The first country to declare war in 1914 was (a) Serbia (b) Germany (c) Austria (d) Russia.
8. The Thirty Years' War ended in (a) 1618 (b) 1648 (c) 1661 (d) 1697.
9. Louis XIV's great war minister was (a) Colbert (b) Prince Eugene (c) Moliere (d) Duke of Orleans (e) Louvois.
10. The "open door policy" means that (a) the country China is open for the claiming of spheres of influence by stronger powers (b) that the country is open for seizure by another country (c) that China should be open on equal terms to citizens of all foreign countries for commerce and investment.
11. The last acquisition of territory which completed the unification of Italy was (a) Lombardy (b) Rome (c) Modena (d) Venetia.
12. (a) Crimean War (b) Seven Weeks' War (c) Napoleonic War aided Bismark in his policy of unification.
13. By the Treaty of Utrecht France lost (a) Gibraltar (b) Belgium (c) Franche-Comte (d) Louisiana (e) Acadia.
14. When Louis XVI called the Estates General it had not met since (a) 1570 (b) 1614 (c) 1756.
15. (a) England (b) France (c) Austria (d) Russia approved of the issuance of the Monroe Doctrine.
16. In the eighteenth and nineteenth century the great colonization power was (a) United States (b) Germany (c) England (d) Japan (e) France.
17. The only two independent countries in Africa today are (a) Transvaal (b) Natal (c) Liberia (d) Libia (e) Eritrea (f) Abyssinia.
18. The wars of Louis XIV were undertaken with the primary purpose of (a) crushing England (b) extending French territory to the Po (c) winning of the Austrian succession for Louis' grandson (d) extending French territory to the Rhine.
19. The Treaty of Utrecht placed a member of the (a) Bourbon (b) Hapsburg (c) Valois (d) Savoy (e) Hohenzollern family upon the throne of Spain.

20. The so-called Diplomatic Revolution of 1576 resulted in Austria's becoming an ally of (a) England (b) France (c) Prussia (d) Hanover (e) Poland.
21. The Streltsi was (a) a noble assembly (b) an army of foreign soldiers (c) an army of nobles.
22. The powers which have permanent seats in the Council of the League are (*underline* 5) (a) United States (b) Germany (c) Mexico (d) France (e) Japan (f) Russia (g) China (h) Great Britain (i) Italy.
23. An Italian writer who claimed that monarchs were justified in violating the fundamental laws of the Christian faith was (a) Galileo (b) Mazzini (c) Copernicus (d) Machiavelli.
24. Siam is today an (a) independent country (b) a dependency of France (c) a dependency of Britain.
25. The United States acquired the Virgin Islands (a) by war with Spain (b) by purchase from Denmark (c) by annexation (d) by bargain with Germany.
26. The party that most opposed the German Republic was (a) the Catholic party (b) the "German Peoples" party (c) the Socialist party.

Incorrect Statement

Part I

Directions: Among the following are several incorrect statements. Where necessary, change a word or phrase to make the statement correct. (Note: Do not change more than one word or phrase in each sentence).

1. During the Industrial Revolution British politics were affected by the growth of industrial cities, by the rise of a powerful class of country gentlemen, and by the demand for cheaper food and freer trade.
2. Great Britain had begun to feel the effects of the Industrial Revolution quite early in the eighteenth century.
3. France was the first country affected by the Industrial Revolution.
4. Liberalism and nationalism, Metternich's twin foes, were shattered by the Industrial Revolution.
5. The very fact that French manufactures prided themselves on their reputation for fine work made them less willing to substitute machinery for hand labor.
6. The enforcement of the prohibition act on the exportation of machinery from England in 1825 marked the real beginning of the French Industrial Revolution.
7. James Watt, although not the first to construct a steamboat, was the first to make it pay.
8. The great invention which revolutionized weaving was made by a clergyman, Edmund Cartwright.
9. Partly as a result of the rise of the middle class which accompanied the Industrial Revolution came the passage of the Corn Laws in 1846.
10. James Hargreaves patented a water frame, or water power machinery for spinning. His machines were so heavy, costly, and complicated that separate buildings had to be erected for them; he is therefore given the title, "Father of the Factory."

Part II

Cross out incorrect statement. In the blanks below indicate changes which will make each sentence correct.

1. The period of 1815-1830 in Europe was distinctly a period of repression of liberal views and movements.
2. The outstanding leader of the European governments in this policy was Humboldt, a Prussian statesman.
3. He was backed up in this policy by Alexander II, the clever but erratic Russian emperor.
4. This policy was carried out effectively in Germany by means of the Zollverein.
5. To secure the hearty coöperation of the Powers in the policy of repression, a series of conferences of the Holy Alliance were held.
6. The first of these was held at Berlin in 1820 to consider the problem of the revolting Spanish-American colonies.
7. Due to a combination of circumstances, no European power interfered in Spanish America.
8. In 1820, following the Congress of Aix-la-Chapelle, a French army was sent into Spain to restore Ferdinand VII to his throne.
9. France was, in 1820, under the control of the Orleanists, who were the extreme French reactionaries.
10. During the reign of Charles X, 1824-1830, the French government was conducted in the interests of the wealthy bourgeoisie.
11. Antagonized by the policy of the government the clergy and the nobility united to bring about the Revotion of 1830.
12. This revolution was followed by one in Belgium, where the people established a republic.
13. Throughout this period the dominating power in Italy was Austria, which ruled Lombardy and Naples directly.
14. Secret societies, the Hetairia Philipe, were organized to combat by force the repressive Italian government of the period.
15. Revolutionary movements in 1820 resulted in Italy, based on the American Constitution of 1789.

1.	9. ....
2.	10. ....
3.	11. ....
4.	12. ....
5.	13. ....
6.	14. ....
7.	15. ....
8.	

Part III

Cross out incorrect words and substitute correct words in the following. Do not change more than one word in each sentence.

1. Colbert was the first conspicuous physiocrat.
2. He was trained by Louis XIV.
3. In carrying out his economic theory of "laissez faire" Colbert cut down imports by high tariffs.
4. Grain was one of the exports encouraged.
5. Colbert's aim of self-sufficiency made him oppose the French ambition for colonies.
6. For the same reason he opposed a navy.
7. He abolished the system of "farming taxes."
8. He failed to improve the method of levying taxes.
9. He abolished the guilds.
10. Louvois approved of Colbert's method of developing French power.

Matching

Directions: Place before the unnumbered items the numbers of the item in the other column associated with it in history.

A

1. "Sick Man of Europe"	.... Land League of Ireland
2. "Blood and Iron"	.... "Syndicalism"—"Reflection on Violence"
3. Louis Phillippe	.... The Jesuits
4. Maximilian	.... Bismark
5. Loyola	.... "A scrap of paper"
6. Plebiscite	.... Turkey
7. John Wesley	.... Expression of the will of the people
8. Parnell	.... Bismarck
9. "Going to Canossa"	.... *Das Kapital*
10. Bethman Hollweg	.... Methodism
11. Karl Marx	.... Karageorevitch
	.... "July Monarchy"
	.... Empire in Mexico.

B

1. Disraeli	.... Sarajevo
2. Cecil Roades	.... "Red Sunday"
3. Marat	.... Cape to Cairo
4. John Hay	.... Germ theory of disease
5. Zollverein	.... "Revolutionary Budget" of 1909 in England

6. Stanley	.... Landed nobility of Germany
7. Lloyd George	.... Open Door Policy in China
8. Pasteur	.... "The Friend of the People"
9. Murder of Archduke of Austria	.... "How I Found Livingstone"
10. Father Gapon	.... Nawab
11. Junker	.... Beaconsfield
	.... Customs Union.

C

1. General Gordon	.... *The Spirit of the Laws*
2. Montesquieu	.... "J'accuse"
3. Delcasse	.... First President of Germany
4. Liberum Veto	.... X-rays
5. Crispi	.... Provisional President of China
6. Friedrich Ebert	.... The Triple Entente
7. Marconi	.... Marchand
8. Fashoda	.... Poland
9. Röntgen	.... Adowa
10. Sun Yat Sen	.... Defeat of the Turks in Palestine
11. General Allenby	.... Wireless telegraphy
12. Zola	.... Policy of Interventions
	.... Khartum

Teaching History by the Laboratory Method

BY GALE SMITH, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, RENSSELAER, INDIANA

The laboratory method of teaching history represents a crystallization of experiences with numerous plans and methods which have been tried out in the teaching of this subject. It is probably partly a natural reaction against the cramped narrowness of the purely textbook method and partly a result of a general desire for the improvement of history teaching. Whatever the cause, however, the rapidity with which this style of teaching procedure has found favor has caused many history teachers to pause and look around in search of landmarks for charting such a course. The observations and recommendations made in this article are the result of the writer's experience with experimental classes using the laboratory plan.

A laboratory plan for teaching history depends upon several rather new factors. The first of these is the unit assignment. Without the unit assignment the laboratory method is not a practicable plan for teaching the social sciences. By unit assignment is meant the assignment of work by topics or by historical periods rather than upon a chronological basis. As yet, there is no positive agreement as to what constitutes a unit in any history course. There is no assurance that there ever will be a positive agreement among teachers on this point, nor is such agreement necessary. History naturally divides itself into large movements and rather well defined periods but the exact classification of units depends upon the basis which the teacher has selected for the purpose. In the experimental classes which we have conducted in this school, it was found desirable to divide the American History taught in the junior high school into thirty units and the American History taught in the senior high school into eighteen units. The units themselves vary in length; some may be completed in three or four days while others, for example, "The Organization and Beginning of the United States of America" will require two or three weeks.

After the selection of the unit, the next step is the definite assignment of it to the pupil. The teacher must

keep in mind that the unit is being assigned as a whole. The most effective method is an assignment sheet of some sort. This is nothing more than a complete layout of work for the pupil. It is analogous to the job sheet or work sheet which has been popular in vocational subjects for several years but which has only lately been adapted to academic subjects such as the social sciences. At the present, there are two sources of assignment sheets for history classes. One source is the History Workbook which has appeared within the last two or three years and which furnishes an excellent series of well planned assignment sheets for a history class. The other source is in the initiative of the individual teacher who organizes material for use in a particular class.

In the classes with which the writer has experimented, the assignment sheet contains the following parts: (1) a statement of the purpose of the unit, (2) study guide devices of one or more kinds, (3) a list of suitable reference material which correlates with the unit, (4) a series of topics for discussion, and (5) one or more map projects if the nature of the unit permits.

Two or three different kinds of study guides have been employed. One is an outline of the content of the unit, containing headings which are the main subtopics of the problem under consideration. The employment of a summary instead of an outline has been found more satisfactory, however. If a summary is used, it should contain the minimum essentials of the content of the assignment.

The most effective study guide, though, is a list of new-type questions. This list should contain questions designed to bring out every phase of the unit which the teacher wishes the pupil to study. By a skillful arrangement of such a list of objective questions, the pupil may be held accountable, not only for the minimum essentials of the unit, but for an amount of reading in other references as extended as the teacher sees fit to require. The teacher is thus provided with an easy check upon the pupil's range of reading. Under any other plan, this is very difficult to accomplish.

In following this laboratory plan, the members of the class are not necessarily required to purchase textbooks of their own although they may do so if they choose. The library should contain as many of the references on each assignment as it is possible to get. Generally speaking, multiple copies of six to eight of the leading reference books, in sufficient number to supply the members of the entire class, together with single copies of as many others as possible would be the ideal. The building of a departmental library within the recitation room is most desirable. If small classrooms or other conditions make it impossible to place the complete history library within the classroom, then it must be made accessible to the pupils in some other manner. The basic requirement here, is that the books must be available for convenient use by the pupils during their study and recitation periods. Good maps are also a necessity and the study room should be fitted with at least one set of the best historical wall maps which can be obtained.

Under the laboratory plan, the recitation period becomes, literally, a "work period." The teacher who uses this plan must free herself from some of the traditional ideas about methods of teaching history. One of the first things she must realize is that most of the old fashioned oral recitation must be given up. This does not mean that oral discussion of the problems involved will be eliminated entirely but it does mean that most of the time formerly spent in such recitations will be converted into a work period for the pupil. Almost all of the actual work on each unit should be done under the direct observation and supervision of the teacher and the teacher should not hesitate to give time for this purpose. A lengthened period of fifty-five to sixty-five minutes is very desirable for this work.

It is not practicable to adhere to a uniform daily schedule for a class of this type. That is, it is not possible to say that one half of the period each day will be devoted to supervised study and one half to recitation. This division of time will vary from day to day. For example, the entire class period on the day upon which the assignment of the unit was made might be devoted to the reading of references. If the unit was a long one, the class period for several days in succession might be used for the same purpose. At other times it might be advisable to divide the period between study and oral discussion or between map work and reading. There are endless possible combinations here which can be handled only by the exercise of the best judgment of the teacher.

A good list of discussion questions included in the assignment sheet usually will provide sufficient material for oral recitation, especially if these questions have been carefully framed to bring out the essentials of the assignment. Other questions will arise during the course of the work upon the unit, especially if a list of objective questions which has been used for study guide purposes, is reviewed in class. Such questions as arise in this manner nearly always have the advantage of being spontaneous rather than forced as they usually are in the question and answer recitation.

Such a plan as briefly outlined above is not recommended to correct all of the ills of a history course but it will accomplish a number of things which no other plan will accomplish. It does insure that all of the students are meeting the minimum requirements of the course. It insures that most of them are doing an adequate amount of reading outside of one basic text. It furnishes the teacher with a convenient method for checking upon the pupil's reading; unless he does the reading he cannot complete the specific requirements of the assignment. The laboratory plan adapts the course to the individual needs and abilities of the pupils; furthermore, it removes the burden of the whole classroom activity from the teacher and places it where it belongs, squarely upon the shoulders of the pupils. Instead of spending her time in "dragging out" reluctant answers from unwilling pupils, the teacher may utilize her time in guiding and directing well-planned, purposeful activity on the part of the pupil.

And last but not least is the major accomplishment of such a course: the pupils no longer regard history as a "dry" subject. An entirely new outlook is gained through the opportunity for extended and diversified reading from a large list of selected references. The writer has seen numerous cases, both of junior high school and senior high school students whose whole attitude toward history has been radically altered when they could follow a line of historical reading of their own choosing. As one boy expressed it, "history becomes a recreation instead of a punishment."

UNIT II

The Discovery of America

The Purpose of this Unit

The purpose of this Unit is to show how and by whom America was discovered and how it got its name. In order for you to find out these things, you must find out who the earliest explorers were and also as much as possible about the circumstances connected with their voyages.

Summary of Unit II

In Unit I we saw how conditions in the Old World, especially in Europe, helped to bring about the discovery of a New World. Portugal and Spain were the two nations which were most active in seeking new trade routes to the east after the old trade routes were closed by the Turks. All of the navigators were greatly handicapped by lack of ships and lack of knowledge of geography although the invention of the compass and the astrolabe and the construction of some early maps and globes did a great deal to aid the early explorers.

Columbus had the idea that he could reach the East Indies by sailing due west from Europe and circling the globe. At the same time, Portuguese sailors were busy in attempts to reach India by sailing around the continent of Africa. They were not successful in their efforts to find a water route to the east, however, until after Columbus had made his first voyage. Then, in 1497, Vasco da Gama did sail around Africa and reach India.

In the meantime, Columbus was trying to get someone in Europe interested in his project to sail straight westward into the great unknown seas in order to reach the East. Finally the king and queen of Spain agreed to help him and Columbus fitted out a small expedition which sailed from Palos, Spain on August 3, 1492. Land was sighted on October 12, and the "New World" was thus discovered. The first landing was made on one of the small islands of the Bahama group. Columbus named this San Salvador. He took possession of this land for Spain.

Columbus made three more voyages during the course of which he explored many of the West India Islands and followed a portion of the coast of Central and South America. The later claims which Spain made to this territory were based on these early discoveries of Columbus although the great discoverer, himself, died in disgrace because he did not bring home a large amount of gold.

England was not idle while Columbus was doing these things. In 1492, John Cabot, sailing under the English flag, attempted to find a "Northwest Passage" to India. The result was that he landed on the mainland of North America, probably in the vicinity of Newfoundland. With the exception of the Northmen, he was the first white man to set foot on the mainland of North America. The English claims to the land along the Atlantic seacoast of North America were based on Cabot's discoveries.

However, America was not named for Columbus or Cabot, either. It was named for an Italian, Americus Vespucius who explored along the coast of South America while employed by Spain and later by Portugal. Vespucius wrote an account of his voyages and a German geographer, Waldseemuller published a book in which he gave the name America to the new continents. This name came to be generally accepted.

In order to prevent disputes over newly discovered land especially between Spain and Portugal, the Pope established an imaginary line north and south through the Atlantic Ocean. This line was called The Line of Demarcation and Spain was to have all newly discovered lands on the west of the line and Portugal all newly discovered lands on the east of it.

Study and Test Exercises

Underline the correct answer or answers in each question.

1. The two nations which were most active in exploration in the 15th Century were (England, Italy, France, Spain, Turkey, Portugal).
2. Explorers were greatly handicapped by (lack of knowledge of geography, lack of men to sail their ships, laws forbidding them to sail).
3. Columbus was searching for (a new world, a new trade route).
4. Columbus was a native of (England, France, Italy, Spain).
5. Columbus had the idea that he could reach the East by sailing (west, around Africa, east).
6. Columbus first tried to secure help from (Spain, Holland, Portugal, Italy).
7. Columbus finally received aid from (England, Spain, Portugal, France).
8. Columbus sailed on his first voyage from (Bristol, Lisbon, Palos, Venice).
9. Columbus landed first (on mainland of United States, on San Salvador, in Mexico).
10. Columbus believed that he had (discovered a new continent, reached India, landed on the coast of Africa).
11. On his later voyages, Columbus (sailed around South America, explored in the West Indies and Caribbean Sea, explored along the Atlantic seacoast of North America).
12. As a result of his discoveries, Columbus (became very wealthy, was greatly honored at home, got no credit for his work).
13. The nation which based its claims on the discoveries of Columbus was (Spain, France, Italy, Holland).
14. The mainland of North America was discovered by (Columbus, Cabot, Vasco da Gama).
15. America was named for (Cabot, Columbus, Vespucius, Verrazano).
16. England based her claims in North America on the discoveries of (Ponce-de-Leon, Sir Walter Raleigh, Cabot, Vespucius).
17. The Line of Demarcation was established by (the Emperor of Germany, the Pope, an agreement between England and Spain).
18. Columbus believed that he could reach India by (sailing around Africa, sailing due west from Europe, by sailing due east from Europe, sailing north around Europe).

Fill the blanks with the correct answers.

1. Who were the rulers who helped Columbus fit out his expedition? ....
2. Who was the man who first sailed to India by way of Cape of Good Hope? ....
3. In what city was Columbus born? ....
4. How many different voyages did Columbus make to America? ....
5. What did Columbus call the natives of the islands upon which he landed? ....
6. Why was Queen Isabella disappointed with Columbus' voyages? ....
7. How did the Spaniards treat the natives of the lands in America where they made their first explorations? ....
8. Did Columbus ever set foot on the mainland of North America? ....
9. What was done to separate the claims of different countries to newly discovered lands in America? ....
10. Which country benefited most by this arrangement? ....

Characters and dates to be remembered

1. .... discovered the New World in the year, ... What holiday do we celebrate now on account of this event? .... Give month and day of this holiday ....

2. .... discovered the mainland of North America in the year, ...

3. America was named for ....

4. The first all water route around Africa to India was discovered by .... in the year, ...

Discussion Exercises

1. Compare Columbus' exploit with that of Charles Lindbergh.

2. Have there ever been any other discoveries of as much importance as that of America? Give reasons for your answer.

3. Explain how the geographical location of Spain and Portugal gave them an advantage over the other Old World countries in a search for new ocean routes to the east.

4. Do you think that the New World should have been named for Columbus instead of Vespucius? Give your reasons.

5. Which was of more importance to us, the discoveries of John Cabot or those of Columbus? Give your reasons.

6. In what ways was an all water route from Europe to the east better than a land route?

7. Did you ever see any pictures of Columbus or of his ships? Were these actual photographs or what were they?

8. Did Columbus receive great honor and reward for his discoveries? Is it usual or unusual for a great man to be treated in this manner? Give some other examples.

9. Describe one of the ships which belonged to Columbus' expedition. Compare it with a modern ocean liner.

10. Why did not Vasco da Gama's discovery prove to be of more importance and benefit than it did?

A Radio-Vision Broadcast

BY BLANCHE LEVENSON, PASSAIC, NEW JERSEY

If a project is oriented by the children as an outgrowth of the regular class room work it will be childlike, spontaneous, and a source of pride and enjoyment to them. Such was the radio-vision broadcast produced by a 4A class in School No. 6, Passaic, New Jersey. A radio-vision broadcast may call up a great many different thoughts. Ours was a play written by the children on the life, manners, and customs of the ancient Teutons in Europe.

In the fourth grade we study the life of the Teutons in order to compare it with the art, clothing, education, food, government, geography, and religion of today. Since today, quite differently from the teaching methods of yesterday, the teacher desires that the children gain the outstanding thought of the historical movement she is teaching, the question, "How is such a concept to be built up?" arises. She must remember first of all that good teaching comes only when the child is carried from the known to the related unknown.

Accordingly, with the above thoughts in mind, the story of Byrd's adventures were discussed and supplemented by pictures which the teacher brought in. Soon this collection was added to by almost every child in the class. The surface and climatic conditions of the land to which Byrd was going were carefully discussed. The preparations Byrd made in effort to overcome these land conditions were marveled at. Lists of clothing and food supplies were produced to verify these statements. The journey was carefully described and followed on the map. With breathless enthusiasm the children traveled with Byrd and his men to their destination and watched them unload and prepare places of shelter. The question then arose, "How soon after Byrd's landing did we in Passaic know this fact?" Unanimously everyone answered, "Right away."

"How did you learn this?"

"By the newspaper," came the reply.

"How did the newspapers learn this news so quickly?" This distance from the land around the South Pole to Passaic was noted on the map. The answer immediately followed, "By radio." This new fact led us to see how much Byrd was aided in overcoming the hardships he met by means of radio. This point was brought out more clearly by the following incident: Byrd had sent two of his men in an aeroplane to lay wires for another radio base in order to further his explorations. Messages were transmitted back and forth all along the way to the new base. Suddenly they ceased. Byrd waited for a short time after noting carefully the place from which the last message had been sent. When no news came, Byrd set out in search of the lost men. After scouring the land carefully he discovered them, their plane completely ruined. The thought instilled in our mind was that radio had won a firm part in the means of communication throughout the world and that without it Byrd could never have accomplished what he did. Questions then followed in rapid succession. "What is radio? Who invented it? How does it work? Why can't we all broadcast?" This brought about the necessity for outside research work. Fathers, mothers, sisters, and brothers were enlisted. Information was sought for everywhere. Illustrations of radios, microphones, and broadcasting stations taken from newspapers and magazines or drawn by the children were brought in. All this knowledge led to the discovery that today not only has "sound" managed to penetrate the home but "sight," through Passaic's own radio broadcasting station owned and operated by the De Forest Radio Corporation, is now forging its way into recognition. Modern science has now secured itself an important part in the minds of the children.

At this time the story of the Teutons was introduced. "Why, living at the time when the Romans [whom they had studied in the grade before] had already reached the pinnacle of glory, were the Teutons still uncivilized?" In the geography period we discussed the location of Germany, the land in which they

lived, and how it affected the climate. The surface conditions were then discussed. Several children immediately noted that the people living there would have had almost the same surface and climatic hardships to overcome as Byrd and his men. Again it was brought out that modern science had helped Byrd and that without its aid he could not have accomplished very much more than the Teutons. Since science plays such an important part in our lives the question put to the children was, "What can we do along this line to help us remember the Teutons?" Since radio played such an important part in helping us remember Byrd we felt that if we could have seen him even more would have been accomplished. Therefore, a radio-vision broadcast was immediately decided upon. In order to present this activity it was necessary for us to know certain facts about the Teutons. This list of thirteen questions was formulated to guide us:

1. Who were the Teutons?
2. Where did they come from?
3. What did they look like?
4. What kind of clothes did they have?
5. What kind of food did they eat?
6. What kind of homes did they have?
7. Did they have schools?
8. What language did they speak?
9. What religion did they have?
10. Were they warlike?
11. What kind of weapons did they use?
12. With which countries did they fight?
13. Why were they uncivilized?

Since we do not use a history textbook in the fourth grade it was necessary for the teacher to tell most of the information supplemented only by the meager facts which some of the children discovered in library books. Carefully guided by our list of questions, each time one was answered to the satisfaction of the children and the teacher, a red dot was placed along side of it to show that we knew that answer. This was done until the entire list was completed. In the meantime, during our language periods, socialized discussion on radio took place. Interest grew. Introductions made by announcers were carefully noted. As soon as our information on the Teutons was complete we were ready for our play. The value of all the knowledge learned before now proved itself. The opening announcement of our play was a direct culmination of all our weeks of discussion and research work. Let me illustrate. The play opens with a little boy and his mother sitting in front of a radio (the radio was a cardboard carton with dials fastened on it standing on an egg box. The entire radio was painted with brown calcimo paint. On the top, which was covered with a piece of curtain material, stood a small flower pot). The little boy holding a newspaper exclaims, "Oh Mother. On the radio page, I read that station W-4A is going to have a radio-vision broadcast on the life of the ancient Teutons. I am going to tune in right now." As he pretends to turn the dials there issues a voice from behind the large white curtains, made of sheets brought in by the children from their homes. It is the voice of the announcer, who, together with the rest of the cast, is seated, waiting for his cue. He proceeds with, "This is station W-4A, School No. 6, Passaic, New Jersey, broadcasting on a frequency of thirty-eight kilocycles (thirty-eight because there were thirty-eight children in the class) in accordance with the Federal Radio Commission sponsored by the children of Room 13. Today's radio-vision broadcast is a play on the life, manners, and customs of the ancient Teutons. The first scene takes place in the morning near their thatched-roof hut." As he continues to enumerate the characters, "Scene I" painted on a Kraft paper screen 6 ft. x 3 ft. and pinned on a sheet is moved to the foreground. The front curtains are moved apart only far enough for the picture to be seen. Our fine arts and industrial arts periods stood us in good stead. After discussing in a language period what points we considered most outstanding in the life of the Teutons, seven salient points were decided upon. During our art periods sketches were made to illustrate these important facts. The most interesting and story-telling sketch was chosen to be the one enlarged and painted on our large Kraft paper screen. These were painted by those children who did best work along this line while the rest of the class composed the play. After much deliberation and many trying trials to present these pictures to an audience at the same time the announcer was making his speech, one boy suggested that we pin each scene on a sheet which was to be hung on ropes stretched across the front of the room. This scheme proved successful. So behind our two front curtains consisting of four sheets we had four more rows of sheets on which were pinned the "vision part" of our broadcast. The pauses between the shifting of the scenes were filled by the announcer's, "This is still station W-4A broadcasting" or "A brief pause for station announcements. Station W-4A broadcasting." Our broadcast was carefully rounded off by this last announcement: "Although this is our first attempt to broadcast a radio-vision program we hope that you have enjoyed it enough to tune in on our next broadcast. This is station W-4A signing off, Martin Kornbluh was your announcer."

A public performance such as the foregoing is only one of the many different kinds possible in a schoolroom. It not only furnishes a strong motivation for children's work through a period of several weeks and even months, but the children gain in poise, initiative, and self-reliance as they work out the various parts of the program they are to give.

Merhard Fay compares the French mind and the American in the November *Harper's*. After reading of the fundamental and rather challenging differences between the two races, one cannot but wonder if after all we are not wise in staying out of the League. Can any amount of external co-operation counterbalance the inherently antagonistic conceptions of the two conceptions of nationalism which he points out? The French are so purely doctrinal; they strive ever and always to attain a rational and complex formula, while the American will strain every nerve to remain within tangible and practical limits. It all goes to make mutual suspicion, as M. Fay points out, and that is a very great obstacle to international accord.

A New Use for the Laboratory Manual

BY GEORGE DEWEY LUNDBERG, HEAD OF HISTORY DEPARTMENT, SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL
FRAMINGHAM, MASSACHUSETTS

Creative teaching and creative learning are education's watchwords today. "We learn by doing," is the cry. In consequence, we have the contract plan, the work sheet, the laboratory method, the project, socialized recitation and supervised study, and a host of other pure and modified courses designed to secure maximum initiative, participation, and effort on the part of the pupil. One objective which runs through all of these is the recognition of student ability levels. Another is the opportunity for individual pupil activity. Many of us, however, lack the facilities for adopting specific ones of these plans in entirety, and must strive toward their advantages with whatever tools at hand.

This article is a report upon such an adaptation. A plan in use in two American history classes in our senior high school (one college curriculum section and one general) embodies the following features:

1. The recitation method has been retained in the classroom.
2. All outside written work is organized and included in contracts, which are due upon the completion of units.
3. Original projects are encouraged.
4. The questions and problems of the contracts are taken verbatim from the laboratory manual, and the contracts, instead of being bulky affairs with the questions and references written out, are single mimeographed sheets containing groups of numbers which correspond with question numbers in the manual. The manual is thus the real contract.

The novelty of the experiment lies in this fourth step, an exposition of which is here given.

It may be well to say that this is not an argument for or against the use of the laboratory manual. Nor does the use we are suggesting for it minimize the dangers or the disadvantages of contracts, manuals, or any other ready-made set of directions given to students to follow. It does, however, possess some commendable features, which will become apparent as we outline our procedure.

At the beginning of the course, a sheet of instructions explaining the contract system and the A, B, and C grade levels was handed to each pupil and it was announced that no written work beyond the specifications of the contract would be assigned for outside preparation. This sheet also stressed the importance to the student of meeting certain standards:

1. Choosing the correct grade or level for which to work.
2. Promptness in preparing all assignments and in submitting the completed contract.
3. An intelligent and self-dependent use of reference works and the library.

At the beginning of the study of each unit (following the manual organization throughout) each pupil received his contract sheet, selected the level on which he wished to work, and prepared his contract in conjunction with the questions and directions in his laboratory manual which corresponded to the numbers on his sheet. The work was done individually (we assume!) outside of class. Following is the contract sheet given on the second unit of the course.

AMERICAN HISTORY—CONTRACT II

UNIT II—COLONIZING THE CONTINENT

Purpose: To study the expansion of Europe in America.
Read carefully the "Overview" found on page 29 of the *Work Manual*.
Study the outline given in each topic.
When this contract has been finished, study pages 49-50 of the *Manual* as a review of the first two units.
Ask your instructor for any outline maps, graph paper, etc., that you need.

CONTRACT C	CONTRACT B	CONTRACT A
I. *Topic 5* Text, 36-38 a. Ques 1, 4	*Topic 5* a. Ques. 2 or 5, 6	*Topic 5* a. Ques. 8
Topic 6 Text, 38-45, 56-59, 69 a. Ques. 1-5, 7, 8	*Topic 6* a. Ques. 6, 9	*Topic 6* a. Ques. 11 or 12
Topic 7 Text, 45-56 a. Ques. 1-3, 6	*Topic 7* a. Ques. 4 or 5	*Topic 7* a. Ques. 7 or 10
Topic 8 Text, 59-69 a. Ques. 1, 2, 4, 5	*Topic 8* a. Ques. 3, 7	*Topic 8* a. Ques. 10 or 12
Topic 9 No text ref. a. Read one reference under "Collateral" and write a brief summary of it. Use the questions on this topic for guidance.	*Topic 9* a. Ques. 3, 6	*Topic 9* a. Ques. 5, 7
Topic 10 Text, 93-104 a. Ques. 1, 4	*Topic 10* a. Ques. 6, 7	*Topic 10* a. Ques. 5 or 12
Topic 11 Text, 72-93 a. Ques. 3, 4, 7	*Topic 11* a. Ques. 1 or 2, 8	*Topic 11* a. Ques. 10, 13
II. Outline *one* "Floor Talk" on each topic. Give name of reference used and of talk.		
III. Make a map according to instructions found on page 46 of the *Manual*.		

The manual which we use contains a variety of working suggestions—floor talks, quotations for discussion, problems and projects, and map exercises, as well as the usual set of questions for each topic in the larger unit. The questions fall naturally into three groups, which we may name, according to the type of work done by the pupil who answers them, as memory or repetition questions, research questions, and thought questions.

For example, the list of *Manual* questions on Topic 8 of the above unit runs as follows:

1. Who discovered the Hudson River? How was New York first settled? When did it become New York and by what means?
2. What was the Dutch patroon system? Compare it with the agricultural systems of the northern and southern colonies.
3. Characterize the government of New York under the Duke of York. Characterize the colony itself, pointing out the influence of the different nationalities represented in it. What do we mean by the term "cosmopolitan"? Could it be applied to colonial New York?
4. Who were the Quakers? What was their connection with the settlement of the Middle Colonies? Describe the plan of William Penn in establishing his colony. Discuss the founding of Philadelphia. Were the Penns successful in their colonial plans?
5. What nationalities immigrated to New York? To Pennsylvania? What nationality first settled Delaware?
6. Tell the story of the early history of the Jerseys and Delaware.
7. Describe the life of the Middle Colonies in 1700. What were their particular contributions to our development?
8. Can you list any Dutch characteristics that still continue in New York history? Read and report on Washington Irving's *Knickerbocker's History of New York.*
9. Compare the city plan of Philadelphia with that of some more modern city. See Hill, *Community Life and Civic Problems,* chapter on "Civic Beauty."
10. Are there Quakers in the United States today? Do they hold to the same principles as those of Penn's time? Is the attitude of the general public toward them the same now as it was then?
11. Define and discuss the term "cosmopolitan." How is it especially applicable to New York and the Middle Colonies?
12. What inducements did owners of American land offer to attract immigrants? Is there any resemblance between their methods and those of modern realtors?*

This is obviously too much to require in writing, as each unit contained from four to ten such topics. Questions 6, 8, 9, and 11 were therefore omitted when the material was assigned for the contracts, leaving a total of eight questions to be answered in writing over a period of three days.

Going upon the theory that different student ability levels should result not only in different quantities but also different qualities of work produced, we grouped these eight questions according to the classification given above, 1, 2, 4, and 5 falling in the fact memory or repetition group, 3 and 7 in the research group, and 10 and 12 (a choice of answering was given between these) in the thought group. The C grade contracts were then made to include the first group (1, 2, 4, and 5); the B contracts contained the first group plus the second (3 and 7); and the A contracts were made up of the first and second groups plus Question 10 or 12 of the third group. As is customary in contract work, each student is given a choice of the contract, or grade, for which he wishes to work, but no student is permitted to do less than his abilities permit. That is, a B student cannot do C contract work and remain a B student, and a student to win the grade of A (if otherwise qualified) must not only cover the work of all the rest of the class as regards fact memory from the textbook and research and comparison in collateral readings, but he must be able and willing to do a bit of thinking and investigating besides.

Lest it be thought that the C students are thus given no opportunity for original or creative work, I will explain that every member of the class, regardless of rank, is required to choose and give one floor talk on each topic and to incorporate in his written contract the outline for it. He is also given an opportunity to discuss or interpret the historical comment quoted in the manual at the end of each topic. Voluntary original projects are encouraged and any pupil, regardless of rank or contract, is permitted to offer one.

Used in this way, the manual becomes an integral part of the course, with a definite value beyond the casual class discussion or the occasional isolated assignment. It saves time for the teacher who has been avoiding contract work because of lack of time to make the contracts and mimeograph them, and furnishes an adequate testing device for varying ability levels because its examinations are based upon its study questions. It can be used just as well with pupils of low intelligence quotients as in classes of high mental ability. It teaches the pupil to evaluate study procedures. Results obtained from this plan, in comparison with those of other devices I have used, maintain a very satisfactory high level.

* Wilson: *Laboratory Manual in American History,* American Book Co.

NOTES ON PERIODICAL LITERATURE

By Gertrude Bramlette Richards, Ph.D.

In the last issue of the *Dublin Review,* Mr. Michael de la Bedoyere discusses the New Humanism in America. To him all that it means so far may be classified as fads and cults, and he seems to doubt if the Americans will ever grasp the inherent significance of this or of any other philosophical system.

Professor Philip Cabot of the Harcard Business School considers that free competition is a far greater menace to prosperity than is monopoly. The conditions on which economic theories of today are based have altered swiftly and fundamentally and out of the resulting chaos one or two facts alone remain unchallenged. In the first place what the worker needs is not more competition in industry but more coöperation in order that the system may be stabilized and employment assured. Stability depends on the control of production and consequently on the restraint of trade, a restraint on the part of trade itself or of the state; the latter system leads inevitably to communism, a greater menace than that which we are now confronting; the former means the creation of units of production and of distribution in major fields, under intelligent management and directed by foresight with which to conceive and carry out such planning. (*Yale Review,* Autumn, 1931.)

Viscount Brentford has a word to say on two outstanding defects of the Five-Year Plan, in the October *English Review.* The lack of economic perspective in two of the largest projects undertaken by the Russians, the railroads and the Dnieprostroi Dam, indicate that the Plan is not as yet adapted to the economic needs of the country but is rather an uncoördinated and conflicting mass of many plans. The tremendous mass of unskilled labor, plus the very small amount of skilled labor, present another and very serious obstacle to the success of the undertaking.

History Teaching in Other Lands

The Teaching of History in the Elementary Schools of Rumania

BY APOSTOL CULEA, INSPECTOR IN THE SCHOOL DEPARTMENT

Translation by Drs. Joseph Strayer, Princeton University, and Ruth McMurry, Teachers College, Columbia University

In order to present this subject as a pedagogical unit, I might begin by showing the way in which our school teachers are trained. However, since the history courses in the normal schools[1] are the same as those in the Lycées, except for a different division of the subject-matter, I will not take up this phase of the subject, especially since it will be discussed in the report on the teaching of history in the Lycées.

The Character of the Official Programs for History

From the historical material suitable for children, such subjects have been chosen as will develop "love of country, through the knowledge of what their ancestors have done to preserve their country and to contribute to its progress." Since the child broadens his mind by becoming acquainted with his environment, which is of special interest to him, and since acquaintance with and admiration for those who work around us is a primary source of patriotism, the teaching of history begins in the second year of the elementary school with a discussion of local reminiscences about notable personalities who have rendered service to the community, and is continued by a treatment of events in the locality which are mentioned in local legends or history. Finally, legends about the heroes of the nation are presented.

History proper, based on documents and confirmed by historians, begins in the third year, and continues to the end of the elementary school (see the *Introduction to the Official Programs,* issued by the Ministry of Public Instruction).

Thus from the age of eight, in the second year of the elementary school, the child begins to receive his first ideas about history in the form of legendary tales about things in his own environment. These legends are connected, as far as possible, with monumental remains which are available for observation by the pupils. During the first month, the children are told the oral traditions about the foundation of the village or the town, and about the neighboring river, the hill, the mountain, the valleys, the near-by monastaries, etc. Then the biographies of notable men of the region, events, which have made a special impression on the minds of the people, and old houses or ruins, if there are any, are studied.

From this historical "localism," the children go on to the study of the history of the nation and Rumanian countries, beginning with their most remote ancestors, and ending with the present period. The spirit of the instruction remains the same. The most characteristic of the legends which are still current in Rumanian territory, those dealing with the great princes of the past, are chosen. They are presented in an historical setting, and give a picture of the past. Some of these legends tell of the first Rumanian princes, who appealed to their subjects to defend the land of their ancestors and Christianity against the invaders. These are our *chansons de geste*. They are legends about monastaries and walled cities, religious leaders and pious princes, rulers who founded churches after gaining victories, and other stories about the liberality of these princes and the gratitude of their subjects. Most of these legends, which are based on the idea of national solidarity, are really little stories which fit in very well with present social morality.

In the third-year class, when the children are nine years old, the most important periods of Rumanian history are treated through series of biographies.

In the fourth class, Rumanian history is taught in much the same way, but naturally in a little more detail. The course includes the following subjects: the formation of the Rumanian people; the destruction of national unity, as a result of the migrations of the peoples of the East; the efforts of Rumanian princes to form independent states; their struggles for liberty and the orthodox religion; the period of the greatest victories, in which the Rumanian countries of Wallachia, Moldavia, and Transylvania were united under the scepter of a single prince, Michael the Brave; the destruction of this unity; the political decadence of the Rumanian countries after the Turkish invasion; the appearance of princes who protected the movement for civilization; the loss of national territory to neighbor-

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***Editor's Note.*—This is the tenth installment of the reports of the Commission on History Teaching appointed by the International Committee of Historical Sciences. The Commission is composed of the following: Professor Gustave Glotz (France), Chairman; Dr. Otto Brandt (Germany), Secretary and Reporter; Don Rafael Altamira (Spain), Professor Edv. Bull (Norway), Senator C. Calisse (Italy), Dr. W. Carlgren (Sweden), Count Alfonso Celso (Brazil), Professor A. Domanovsky (Hungary), His Excellency Augustin Edwards (Chile), Professor M. Handelsman (Poland), Professor Frans van Kalken (Belgium), Professor A. C. Krey (United States of America), Professor C. Marinescu (Rumania), Dr. H. Nabholz (Switzerland), Mme. Marie Nielson (Denmark), Dr. M. Pokrovsky (U.S.S.R.), Dr. J. Susta (Czechoslovakia), Professor Tenhaeff (Netherlands).**

The reports will appear in full in the *Bulletin of the International Committee of Historical Sciences,* subscriptions to which (at $1.00 for three numbers, or 40 cents a number) may be placed with Faxon and Co., 83 Francis Street, Boston, Mass.

ing Turks, Austro-Hungarians, and Russians during the period of military decadence; the cultural and political revival through contact with the West; the great figures of our national revival, and the movement to realize age-old aspirations; modern Rumania, the first stage—union of Wallachia and Moldavia in 1859 and the end of Turkish suzerainty following the war of 1877 under Charles I; the second stage—formation of the present state of Rumania, which attained its ethnical frontiers under Ferdinand I (1916-1918).

The official instructions, while they fix these main outlines, are not trying to fill the course exclusively with study of men who have defended the country, but the careers of these men are to be presented as far as the children can understand them.

At the same time, their contributions to the progress of culture are not lost sight of. As the official instructions say:

> It should not be forgotten that moral ideas and patriotic impulses should be stressed at the end of every lesson which lends itself to such teaching, although it is not always possible to apply these methods to all subjects.
>
> The most appropriate method of presenting history in the elementary school is the biographical method, since it is easier to make the children comprehend and take interest in a lesson by telling them of the life of a hero, and by showing them that this hero determined events, than by giving them an abstract discussion of the complex causes which produced these events.
>
> Since history makes much more of an appeal to the heart and mind than to the memory, the teacher should remember that it is very important not to cram the children full of tiresome dates and names which do not help them at all to understand the subject being discussed, nor to develop patriotism and love of country. Only the most important dates and events are to be learned by heart.
>
> History lessons will be much more attractive, and will produce better results, if historical pictures and relics are used in connection with the teaching. *For this reason, the teacher must form a collection for the historical museum of the school.* This collection may be composed of pictures, albums, postcards, books, weapons, and any ancient objects which recall the past of our nation.

In the supplementary course, composed of three classes (the fifth, sixth and seventh years, for those who do not enter a technical or secondary school), the history courses deal with the same subjects in somewhat greater detail. Political and military facts are taught in association with the history of national civilization. Whenever a great historical figure is discussed, his social environment is treated in order to give some explanation of his character. In this way, the religious life of the churches and monasteries, old methods of building, industry and commerce of the past, the ways in which villages and towns were founded, the history of the army and methods of warfare, old systems of taxation, justice, and education are presented.

There are even efforts at times to show the interdependence and synchronization of historic events in Europe in connection with such topics as the great discoveries and intellectual movements (the discovery of America, the invention of printing, the influence of the revolutions of 1789 and 1848, etc.). At the same time, an attempt is made to explain historically the parallelism between Rumania and the West because of the geographic situation of the country, exposed to the destructive attacks of the warlike Turks for several centuries. The slowing down of the rhythm of civilization in our countries as the result of this situation is not forgotten in the teaching.

Unofficial Ideas Which Are Penetrating the Official Program

Rumanian elementary schools have felt the influence of the strong personality of Professor N. Jorga, who, without limiting himself to a more or less epic picture of war, as others had done before him, wrote, twenty years ago, a history for normal and secondary schools which gave a synthesis of Rumanian endeavors. This idea of a history of civilization has been adopted by other authors, and has even penetrated elementary school teaching.

Rumanian pedagogues at the present time insist that the teaching of history be adapted to the psychology of the child and to the environment in which he lives.

About ten years ago a new historical spirit and new pedagogical methods began to appear in the reviews, the professional meetings, and even in the textbooks.

I shall sum up, in the rest of the paper, the most widespread of these new ideas, those which are accepted by a majority of elementary school teachers:

1. Curiosity about the world and facts of the past barely appears by the age of eleven. Without a clear idea of duration and historical succession the child puts everything in the present, and associates in the same period historical events which are told him when he is too young. Therefore, there is a demand that history be introduced as an independent subject only in the fourth class. In the second class, and especially in the third class, children should have only preparatory lessons which might aid later in understanding history. These lessons should be given incidentally in connection with other subjects, on the basis of association of ideas. The past may be associated with the present without demanding historical perspective. Teachers should limit themselves to talking about ancient objects and facts, in contrast with those of the present. Only in the fourth year, when the idea of time and historical duration becomes a little more mature, should the instructor take up the historical evolution of the nation centered around great men and notable events.

2. There is a demand that the principle of historical "localism" be introduced as a means of creating historical intuitions and love of the native soil. This method would effectively aid in making the children sensitive to the ideas of a fatherland and national unity. To a general uniform program the teachers should add a supplementary program including subjects in the first program which are of particular interest to a given locality. There should also be some lessons which would be purely local. This "localism" should also be cultivated in the normal schools, so that instruction may be adapted to the local environment.

3. The teachers should use legends and historical traditions which show men or the society of other periods in a more vivid light, without contradicting historical truth. They should also avail themselves of historical

reconstructions which writers have attempted to create. This latter material should be used as auxiliary reading. In the first years of elementary education, all this material should be presented in the vague setting of "once upon a time," thus avoiding too great historical precision.

4. There is a tendency toward a history which will give equal weight to periods of suffering and struggle, and to those of peaceful, creative work, toward a presentation of individual and collective heroism in war and in peace. Thus the teachers hope to give the children the idea of progress and the optimistic conviction that, compared with the past, the present has made life better. They should try to create a special atmosphere before speaking of events, and in this way the personages who are being studied will appear as saviors and heroes.

5. The history of ethnical minorities, of neighboring and western countries, should be taught in so far as it has any connection with Rumanian history. An attempt should be made to outline the contribution which Rumanians have made to universal history. The teacher should lay special emphasis on relations between Rumanians and national minorities in our territory.

6. The teacher should attempt to develop the child's abilities to express himself through drawings and miniatures, and at the same time the pupils should be asked to aid in adding to the collections of the historical museum of the school.

This sort of history, full of ideas of solidarity and activity, based on truth, is forcing itself, more and more, into the courses of study and the textbooks of the Rumanian elementary school.

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[1] The normal schools for elementary school teachers give a seven-year course. All pupils who have finished four years of elementary school may enter a normal school if they pass the entrance examination.

Compulsory attendance at elementary school begins at the age of seven. The first four classes form a group for basic instruction. A pupil who has completed this first cycle may enter secondary or technical schools. Those who do not enter these schools must continue in the supplementary courses of the elementary school. This first cycle is being broadened and manual training is being added.

Bibliographies for Teachers of the Social Studies

III. Modern History

BY EDGAR BRUCE WESLEY, HEAD OF SOCIAL STUDIES, UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL, AND ASSISTANT PROFESSOR, COLLEGE OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

This is the third of a series of bibliographies for teachers of the social studies. The compiler is attempting, in the first place, to select a list of the names of writers who have made important contributions in the respective fields. These lists will, it is hoped, serve as an incentive to teachers to become acquainted with the men and their work. In the second place, he is attempting to select and comment briefly upon a restricted number of books which treat important phases in an interesting and authoritative manner.

The period of modern history is difficult for teachers and students. The coördinating factors which bring about a degree of unity in so much of medieval history as is likely to be utilized in high school are almost entirely lacking in the modern period. The rise of nationalities and the corresponding decline in feudalism lead, not to the history of modern Europe, but to the histories of modern Euorpean countries. The task of the teacher, then, is to trace, in such detail as time and resources allow, the histories of the important countries. In a way the teacher is in a position similar to that of a juggler at a county fair who tries to keep a number of balls in the air at the same time. In fact, the teacher's task is even more complicated; he must not only keep the balls in the air, but at the same time he must keep them all even.

The careless assumption that there is a history of modern Europe has led textbook writers and teachers to overemphasize such coördinating elements as can be found. Thus the period of religious wars, overseas expansion, the French Revolution, and the Industrial Revolution are used as bonds of unity. Pedagogical economy justifies to some extent this straining after unity, but it is likely to lead to a neglect of the fundamental differences which characterize these movements in the various countries. The risk is not parallel to that of overlooking the varieties of feudalism in the Middle Ages. It is the danger of overlooking, not only the elemental facts of chronology, but the very existence of national states. The student may even fall into the error of assuming the existence of a European government, or at least a sort of dominant entity. In fact, to some extent he seizes that idea when he tries to select in every period *the* leading country. In order to secure unity he will magnify and minimize to fit his preconceived notions. The idea, then, of a history of Europe is likely to lead to the overemphasizing of the legitimate elements of unity.

The danger of finding unity where there is none should not, however, prevent the teacher from making use of every legitimate generalization which applies to the major countries of Europe. The Industrial

Revolution, although appearing in various countries at widely separated periods, brought about in them conditions which had many points of similarity. The French Revolution, for a brief period, becomes the center and to some degree the unifying event of Europe. The fact that it can be used as a connecting thread, as well as its intrinsic importance, accounts for the extended attention which it receives. On the other hand, the bewildering complexity of modern history becomes apparent when the teacher tries to present the causes of the World War. The cautious teacher soon sees the hopelessness of trying to find *the* cause and begins with Bosnia, the Bagdad Railway, trade rivalries, militarism, or some one cause which in itself is complicated to the *n*th degree. Thus we arrive again at the conclusion that the history of Europe, international as are many of its aspects, is still essentially the history of European countries and not the history of a continent.

The necessity of centering attention upon a few selected countries has led to the practical omission of many others. Such consideration as they do receive is incidental. Thus it has come about that for all practical purposes the history of Europe is the history of England, France, Italy, Germany, and selected portions from the stories of Russia, Spain, Poland, Austria, Turkey, and the Balkans. Other countries are sometimes mentioned in passing, but no one is expected to know more about them than the most glittering generalities. Unsatisfactory as such a skimming may be, it is apparently destined to continue as the customary practice, at least until the historians have made a new synthesis or until the average I.Q. expands with unexpected suddenness.

Whether desirable or not, one must, if he is to use the typical textbooks, accept the viewpoint that the history of modern Europe is largely the histories of the various countries. This being the case, let us see in what ways these histories can best be treated. By way of beginning, visualize the small boy who was frequently confronted with the task of filling the woodbox with small sticks of wood. He sometimes went to the woodhouse and carried in one load, returned for another, and repeated the process until the box was filled. At other times he experimented with the plan of carrying a load a short distance and depositing it in a convenient place and then placing the next load beside it; when all the loads had been brought to the resting place, he advanced them one by one to the next resting place. Dissatisfied with both plans, he sometimes began by throwing individual sticks as far on the journey as he could; he continued his task by throwing the hindmost sticks forward until all had reached their destination. Some teachers think that the first plan is best, that each country can be most advantageously treated by concentrating attention upon it until the story is completed. Others think that each country should be advanced a stage on the journey and allowed to rest until the others are brought up with it. Still others think that individual topics should be selected and carried through a considerable distance, perhaps all the way.

From the standpoint of the historian the first plan is certainly more economical, but such a plan would scarcely enable the student to make even random attempts toward association and correlation. The second plan, that of carrying each country to a suitable resting place, is superior in that it enables the student to survey the entire load. If the resting places are well selected, the plan also enables the student to study the movements in which there was general participation. The third plan is well calculated for the treatment of specific topics and will lead to an appreciation of the multitudinous factors which go to make up history. This topical plan would seem also to be well adapted to the treatment of recent world history, for the futility of trying to encompass the histories of countries in all parts of the world forces author, teacher, and student to select phases and examples.

Another possible procedure in teaching modern European history is to select and center attention upon one country. The country selected should not be regarded as a type, but it can be made to serve as a chronological touchstone and as a constant with which to compare and contrast other countries. This method would lead to an appreciation of the enormous differences among countries. It would emphasize the uncertain and uneven progress which countries have made toward the attainment of modern ideals. It would also enable the student to secure a connected account of at least one country.

Four methods have been indicated: (1) to deal with each country as a complete entity, paying only incidental attention to others, (2) to carry each country to a convenient period in which some general unity can be found, (3) to center attention upon topics, and (4) to select and center attention upon one country for purposes of comparison and contrast. The teacher will probably oscillate between two or more of these plans. Perhaps one may learn from the case of the boy who brought in the wood that the living treatment of any problem will not fall entirely within any single channel but will involve a variety of methods, each of which is followed only tentatively. The student as well as the teacher will profit by the use of a variety of approaches.

This necessity of being able to shift readily from one approach to another and of employing simultaneously two or more varieties of approach requires that the teacher be able to move with sureness and ease among the mazes of his subject. In other words, he needs a wide margin of knowledge beyond the immediate topics of the text and course of study. The following bibliography has been selected to aid the teacher in meeting this double requirement of breadth and detail.

III. Modern History

A. Authorities

Altamira, Ashley, Aulard, Ballesteros, Beer, Bernhardi, Blanc, Blok, Buckle, Burnet, Buchan, Carlyle, Cheyney, Chirol, Clarendon, Clausewitz, Coolidge, Dawson, Driault, Droysen, Duruy, Fay, Fisher, Fournier, Froude, Gardiner, Gjerset, Gooch, Hanotaux,

Hassell, Hume, Johnston, Bolton King, Lamprecht, Lavisse, Lecky, McCarthy, Macaulay, Mahan, Marriott, Marx, Merriman, William Miller, Morley, Motley, Mowat, Nitzsch, Oman, Oncken, Prescott, Rambaud, Ranke, Robinson, Rose, Sée, Seeley, Sorel, Sybel, Taine, Thiers, Treitschke, Walpole.

B. Bibliography

1. General

a. Cheyney, Edward P. *Law in History and Other Essays*. New York, Knopf, 1927.

Teachers of history are under the necessity of formulating a philosophy of their subject, of framing workable concepts, and of giving substance to the bewildering details which they encounter. The process is arduous and slow, and few unaided can reach satisfactory conclusions. The aid must come, however, after one has puzzled over such matters. Those who are in such a frame of mind will read with appreciation Professor Cheyney's fundamental synthesis. In spite of the ease with which the address may be read, its profound contents require grasp and reflection. "Law in History" might well be used to measure one's seriousness of interest, command of knowledge, and depth of penetration.

b. *Cambridge Modern History*. Ed. by A. W. Ward, G. W. Prothero, and Stanley Leathes. 14 vols. New York, Macmillan, 1902-1912.

The oldest of the Cambridge family. Volumes I and II deal with the Renaissance and Reformation. Comprehensive, uneven, and undigested in part, but invaluable for reference. Chronological tables, good indices, and the atlas enhance its value. It might be useful to remember that the Cambridge family includes histories of India and the British Empire.

c. Higby, Chester P. *History of Europe, 1492-1815*. New York, Houghton, 1927.

d. Hyma, Albert. *Short History of Europe, 1500-1816*. New York, Crofts, 1928.

e. Gillespie, James E. *History of Europe, 1500-1815*. New York, Knopf, 1928.

f. Turner, E. R. *Europe, 1450-1789*. New York, Scribners, 1923.

The recency of these books testify to the awakened interest in the period. Gillespie stresses cultural aspects. Turner has several excellent black and white maps and presents a readable account.

g. Abbott, Wilbur C. *The Expansion of Europe*. New York, Holt, 1924.

A notable book, comprehensive and reliable. Covers the period from the Renaissance to 1789. Its theme is the Europeanization of the world, but the author very properly shows what Europe had that was worthy of transplantation. A good introduction and a continually useful volume after one has been introduced.

h. Bourne, Henry E. *The Revolutionary Period in Europe, 1763-1815*. New York, Century, 1914.

A trustworthy account of the French Revolution in its European setting. Scholarly, detailed, and worthy of careful study.

i. Feuter, Edward. *World History, 1815-1920*. New York, Harcourt, 1922.

j. Hazen, Charles D. *Europe since 1815*. New York, Holt, 1909. Revised 1923.

k. Schapiro, J. Salwyn. *Modern and Contemporary History*. Boston, Houghton, 1919. Revised 1929.

Feuter has written a remarkable synthesis of *world* history. Quite the most successful attempt to organize historically the great movements of the nineteenth century. Primarily for teachers. Hazen writes with unusual charm and vividness. No one can ever forget, for instance, his description of Metternich. Schapiro presents the most teachable outline for high school teachers.

l. Gooch, George P. *History of Modern Europe, 1878-1919*. New York, Holt, 1923.

Particularly valuable for an understanding of the backgrounds of the Great War. International affairs from the Congress of Berlin to the close of the war. Based upon sources.

m. Ogg, Frederic Austin. *Economic Development of Modern Europe*. New York, Macmillan, 1917. New ed. by the author and W. R. Sharp, 1926.

A satisfactory account of the agrarian, industrial, labor, and commercial development of the British Isles, France, and Germany from 1500 to the Great War. A disproportionate allotment (154 pages), perhaps, to socialism and social insurance. Six chapters of the new edition deal with the war and its aftermath. Somewhat laborious to read, but a sober work by a man of much knowledge.

n. Gerard, James W. *The Peace of Utrecht*. New York, Putnam's, 1885.

A useful, semi-popular, survey of European politics and wars from 1667 to 1715. Clear, though not distinguished, style with forceful sentences and short paragraphs; quotations from sources interwoven with the author's text. Good account of the details of the negotiations at Utrecht, and an affecting description of the death of Louis XIV. The importance of Utrecht, usually accepted on faith, becomes a reality for the reader.

o. Mahan, A. T. *Mahan on Naval Warfare, Selections from his Writings*. Edited by Allan Westcott. Boston, Little, 1918.

Admiral Mahan's works are based upon careful research, and the results are focused upon an interpretation which has profoundly influenced the naval policy of the world. Mahan stresses sea power as the great factor of history. He interprets the outcome of the French Revolution and the Napoleonic period as a victory for the country which controlled the sea. He has dealt similarly with the periods 1660-1783 and the War of 1812. Westcott has collected the most pertinent passages.

2. England

a. Cross, Arthur L. *A Shorter History of England and Greater Britain*. New York, Macmillan, 1920. Revised 1929.

b. Lunt, William E. *History of England*. New York, Harper, 1928.

In modern history England deserves much atten-

tion. The teacher should be aware of the completeness of the records of English history and of its consequent value. He might to advantage be acquainted with some of the more ambitious attempts to assemble this record, such as the Hunt and Poole *Political History of England* in twelve volumes and the Oman series in seven volumes. Either of the texts listed above will serve as an introduction to English history, and their bibliographies cite other fundamental works. Cross' detailed treatment makes his text valuable for reference as well as for reading. Excellent sections on constitutional, social, and economic developments. Emphasizes Britain in its world setting. In smaller space and livelier style Lunt presents an excellent narrative in which social, economic, and cultural matters receive ample attention.

c. Cheyney, Edward P. *Introduction to the Industrial and Social History of England*. New York, Macmillan, 1901. Revised 1920.

The most readable survey of the whole subject. One-half the volume is devoted to the period before the Industrial Revolution. The last chapter, devoted to the twentieth century, is particularly useful.

d. Robinson, Howard. *Development of the British Empire*. Boston, Houghton, 1922.

A book which records the general facts in the development of a goodly part of the world. Well organized and clearly written. Few interpretations.

e. Trevelyan, G. M. *England under the Stuarts*. New York, Putnam, c 1904.

History and literature combined. Brilliant. Covers the period from 1603 to the death of Anne. The opening chapter on the state of England, 1603-1640, is a masterpiece of description and analysis. The Stuart period deserves the careful attention of Americans because of its intimate connections with American history.

3. France

a. Adams, George B. *Growth of the French Nation*. New York, Macmillan, 1896.

b. Bainville, Jacques. *History of France*. New York, Appleton, 1926.

Adams' history of France, in spite of its date, remains the best brief history of that nation in English. Its one shortcoming is a brevity which leads to such compression that some periods are little more than indicated. Attention is focused upon the territorial and accompanying political growth; consequently social and economic aspects, though not neglected, receive less attention. Bainville's history is enjoying some popularity in the United States. It is a frankly monarchistic book written in a charming style, which is apparent even in translation. Mainly political.

c. Gottschalk, Louis R. *The Era of the French Revolution, 1715-1815*. Boston, Houghton, 1929.

Well-conceived and excellently written; based upon the latest results of European scholarship. Nearly every teacher appreciates the importance of recency in books on ancient history, but it is doubtful if developments in that field justify the practice any more than in the field of the French Revolution, where there has been an enormous amount of research. Gottschalk writes occasional passages with color and force. Of the 457 pages only 116 are devoted to the Old Régime. Somewhat more space is given to the revolution than to Napoleon. Contains a useful chronological summary. Nominally a book on European history, but primarily a history of France in the period indicated.

d. Madelin, Louis. *The French Revolution*. New York, Putnam, 1916.

e. Mathews, Shailer. *French Revolution, 1789-1815*. New York, Longmans, 1900. Revised 1923.

Madelin's book is brilliantly written. Vivid and dramatic even in translation. He upsets the usual notions about the storming of the Bastile and presents other new interpretations. Mathew's volume has been a favorite for over thirty years. Clearly written, well organized, comprehensive. Particularly good for its account of the causes, in which the author stresses the improving conditions of the peasants and their awakening sense of injustice.

4. Germany

a. Henderson, Ernest F. *Short History of Germany*. New York, Macmillan, 1902. Revised 1916.

Fairly full survey, largely political. Gives little space to the period before the twelfth century. Brings the story down to 1914, construing 1648 as the halfway point between the origins and the Great War. Reliable, readable, and the best available in English.

b. Dawson, William H. *German Empire, 1867-1914, and the Unity Movement*. 2 vols. New York, Macmillan, 1919.

Dawson is a competent authority on nineteenth century Germany; particularly interested in economic and political questions. These volumes contain a full and interesting account of the mooted questions connected with the outbreak of the Franco-Prussian War. Accurate and detailed over the whole period.

5. Miscellaneous

a. Trevelyan, Janet P. *Short History of the Italian People from the Barbarian Invasions to the Attainment of Unity*. New York, Putnam, 1920.

A popular account; especially valuable for its treatment of the nineteenth century. Brings the narrative to the outbreak of the Great War.

b. Chapman, Charles E. *The History of Spain*. New York, Macmillan, 1918.

A well-organized, clearly written narrative based upon Altamira. Rather brief in its treatment of the nineteenth century.

c. Platonov, S. F. *History of Russia*. New York, Macmillan, 1925.

A good, readable introduction to Russian history. The recent period, however, receives scant attention.

d. Davis, William S. *A Short History of the Near East, 330-1922*. New York, Macmillan, 1922.

e. Schevill, Ferdinand. *History of the Balkan Peninsula from the Earliest Times to the Present Day*. New York, Harcourt, 1922.

Davis traces the history of Constantinople, the struggle with Islam, and the Turkish advance and recession. Shevill's book is an excellent survey of the

whole history of the Balkan area and furnishes material indispensable for an understanding of the Great War. The volumes supplement one another more, perhaps, than they overlap. Both are written in an interesting manner. Shevill has a transparent organization, and Davis furnishes a chronological table. The teacher who wishes to give further attention to the problem of the Turks will find John A. Marriott's *Eastern Question* a readable and comprehensive account.

f. Treat, Payson J. *The Far East.* New York, Harper, 1928.

A readable and well-organized survey. The first part deals with China from its beginnings to 1895; the second, with Japan in the same period; the third, the whole area of the Far East since 1895. Largely political and diplomatic. Excellent bibliography.

g. Trotter, Lionel J. *History of India from the Earliest Times.* London, Macmillan. Revised 1917.

This book, originally published in 1874, has long been the outstanding book, especially on the period since the English conquest. Its interpretation will scarcely prepare the reader for a sympathetic understanding of Gandhi, but fairly reliable and readable.

h. Scott, Ernest. *A Short History of Australia,* London, 1916. Revised, New York, Oxford Press, 1927.

A readable little book which stimulates a real interest in this somewhat neglected field.

6. Recent Period

a. Moon, Parker T. *Imperialism and World Politics.* New York, Macmillan, 1926.

A fundamental contribution for teachers, especially for those in modern and recent American history, who cannot afford to leave the book unread. In clear, forceful language, Moon traces the general facts of the most momentous phase of recent history.

b. Fay, Sidney B. *Origins of the World War.* 2 vols. New York, Macmillan, 1928. Revised 1930.

c. Schmitt, Bernadotte E. *The Coming of the War, 1914.* 2 vols. New York, Scribner's, 1930.

Both Fay and Schmitt have gone to the sources, yet their conclusions are quite unlike. Schmitt holds that the Central Powers, particularly Germany, were primarily responsible for the war; whereas Fay holds that some of the allies, notably Russia, Serbia, and France, must bear a considerable share of the blame. These two sets require careful reading and are worth the effort. On the other hand, the teacher who wants an emphatic, almost unqualified, statement for the revisionists can find it in H. E. Barnes's *Genesis of the World War* (Knopf, 1927).

d. Hayes, Carlton J. H. *Brief History of the Great War.* New York, Macmillan, 1920.

Still the best one-volume history of the war. Comprehensive. Excellent maps.

e. Benns, F. Lee. *Europe since 1914.* New York, Crofts, 1930.

f. Buell, Raymond L. *Europe, a History of Ten Years.* New York, Macmillan, 1931.

Two excellent treatments. Benns gives some space to the war and brings the story to the date of publication. Buell in a small volume covers the period from 1918 to 1928 and succeeds in writing a clear, readable narrative. Succinct accounts of all the significant developments since the war.

Recent Happenings in the Social Studies

BY COMMITTEE ON CURRENT INFORMATION OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES
W. G. Kimmel, Chairman

Myrtle E. Jensen's, *An Analysis of Objectives of Teaching History* (Madison: University of Wisconsin, 1931. Unpublished master's thesis), is an investigation in which the problem is "to record the objectives given by educators and historians who are recognized in the educational world, and to group them objectively so that others who follow the same procedure will get similar results." The sources of objectives include professional articles, "literary" articles, volumes on general education, and prefaces to history textbooks. Only materials published since 1920 were used, and these were selected by random sampling. An elaborate procedure was used in the analysis of materials. Objectives in the language of the author were copied on cards; if more than one objective was included in the same sentence, additional cards were made. "Central ideas" were underlined, and all objectives containing the same idea were classified in the same category. A second person made an independent classification, and all differences in classification and objectives which did not seem to fall into the categories were then classified by mutual agreement of two persons in conference. Several additional minor steps in the method were also used.

A total of 737 objectives were classified in 29 categories, ranked in terms of frequency. The first five and the last five categories, with frequency of mention, are:

(1) To develop character and improve conduct 62
(2) To develop appreciation of human achievement ...56
(3) To learn the historical method 50
(4) To develop an understanding of institutions and movements 46
(5) To develop an understanding of our "national ideals" 46
(25) To stimulate the "imagination" 12
(26) To develop a sense of "continuity" 12
(27) To form the habit of "generalization" 6
(28) To develop a "desire for peace" 4
(29) To teach the "futility of war" 3

The author also attempts to classify objectives in terms of "subject-matter objectives," "psychological objectives," and "sociological objectives," and arrives at the conclusion that 56 per cent, 34 per cent, and 10.8 per cent of the objectives are found in the respective categories. No definitions of these categories are furnished, and the reader may be somewhat confused in finding "To develop a sense of continuity" in the list of "subject-matter objectives" and "To appreciate human achievement" in the list of "sociological objectives."

Frances Consitt, in "Practical Film Experiments," in *New Era* (London), XII, August, 1931, 271-73, reports briefly some of the results of her investigation of the value of the history teaching film, instituted by the Historical Association and financed by the Carnegie Trustees. The subjects were 5,743 children, ages 7 to 18, enrolled in 52 schools. The co-operation of 143 history teachers and head teachers helped

the investigator in the administration of informal tests. Films, including two on life in the Stone and Bronze Ages, one on Roman Britain, one on Wolfe at Quebec, one on naval warfare, and one on the League of Nations, were shown to pupils; discussion lessons followed on the next day. Pupils wrote essays on the day the film was used, and again at intervals of one to seven months. These were graded and the results compared with ordinary lessons. Coöperating schools submitted data covering the evaluation of the work and the types of films pupils preferred.

Some findings are: (1) life is given to the past by portrayal of motion and of backgrounds in full detail, which furnish pupils with a complete picture of environments which they can use in reconstruction of other settings through constructive imagination; (2) the use of films stimulates mental effort and mental alertness; (3) interest is created, and initiative is aroused, with greater readiness to ask questions; (4) more information is assimilated; (5) children are forced to find their own words to describe scenes and express opinions; (6) while the history teaching film seems to reach its maximum usefulness for pupils 11 to 14 years of age, it must be skilfully used by teachers in connection with oral lessons, and must be followed up by discussion periods. "The film is an additional tool for the teacher, not a substitute." The complete report is announced for publication at an early date.

The October number of the *Journal of the Louisiana Teachers Association* is devoted to the teaching of the social studies. An introductory statement entitled "The Social Science Department" gives a résumé of the activities of the organization of social-studies teachers of Louisiana during the preceding year. Pierce Cline, in "How to Make International Relations Real to High School Students," presents a brief statement of the reasons for the study of international relations in terms of relationships to economic life, militarism, and disarmament. Charles Hodges, in "Citizenship in International Relations," presents a part of a larger work. Reasons for the consideration of international relations as a larger aspect of citizenship are enumerated; some of the necessary elements of knowledge are outlined briefly. Mrs. Harrison Thomas contributes a "Teaching Plan on the League of Nations," which was described in this column in an earlier number.

Carl Mauelshagen, Jr., in "The Social Sciences and the Social Science Teacher," presents some of the elements which pupils should have grasped during the study of courses at the high school level. College courses vary from high school courses in terms of completeness and definiteness of content rather than in differences in kinds of content. Trends and forces should be understood at the high school level. Many units in courses do not result in unity in presentation to the end that pupils gain an understanding of human development and relationships. Certain elements in the training of teachers are outlined; the author asserts that no community can have satisfactory teachers and results in the social studies until the selection of teachers is made with at least the same degree of discretion that is exercised in the selection of a football coach. Alvin Good, in "Is the Teaching of the Social Sciences in the High Schools Socially Minded?" gives a negative answer. Training for citizenship involves "training in economic, religious, familial, and political life," but instruction is frequently confined to the last of these elements, and is characterized by dependence upon the textbook and "lip service" on the part of both teachers and pupils. Emphasis upon facts as the ends of instruction and the lack of socially minded teachers account for poor results. Effective results cannot be obtained until administrators refuse to employ teachers who have not had adequate training in the social sciences. Charles W. Pipkin, in "The Newer Ideals of Democracy in a Changing America," presents evidence to support the thesis that conditions are rapidly changing, with old institutions and ideals undergoing similar changes, although resulting in many maladjustments in the process. The changes have resulted in a situation in which "the lives and liberties of people are at stake." New ideals and a willingness to face facts are needed. "The independence to starve is not an independence which means any freedom in the industrial America of 1931."

Marcus Wilkinson, in "The Newspaper and the Study of Current Problems," stresses the advantages which may accrue through the use of newspapers in the classroom as a part of the instructional materials, and cites the need for the application of reliable criteria in the evaluation of news and newspapers. May Lee Denham, President of the Social Science Section, reviews the conferences, activities, and meetings of the organization in "Social Science Conferences."

"Julian Aronson, in "An Introduction to Economic Geography," *Bulletin of High Points*, XIII, October, 1931, 21-27, traces the subject matter of the course in physiography, history, and economics. The basic phase of the course is centered about the study of the Valley-Section "as the most characteristic unit of land containing the most characteristic regional life of the entire work," based on the work of Le-Play. Following this phase, occupations of men superimposed on particular land forms are studied, with emphasis upon the relationships in terms of Taine's formula for regional study: place-work-folk. Relationships between economic geography and human geography are stressed in the course.

Hyman S. Zieph, in "Teaching a Year's Course in Economics," in the same number, pp. 33-37, describes a plan developed in the James Monroe High School, New York City, which involves the integration of problems and theory. The approach is through the study of a current economic problem, and as the study develops through individual and committee work and tentative conclusions are reached, elements of theory are introduced and used as a basis for the testing of tentative conclusions. The writer is critical in his evaluation of the course in economic problems, textbooks in economics, and the results usually obtained. Pupils have and use what pass for economic facts and theories regardless of whether they study the subject.

"The aim of economics in the secondary school is to develop in our students an enduring interest in economic questions and an understanding of the nature of the present economic order with the object of facilitating its control toward human and civilized ends. Our students should acquire a vivid awareness of economic problems, of the tremendous rôle played in economic thinking by prejudice and special interests, and the necessity of guiding our emotions by intelligence. Economics, if it is to be of value, must alter the student's outlook; it must not confirm or leave untouched his original prejudices. In brief, there must be a reconstruction of experience."

Hazel M. Welsh, in "Unified Social Science in the Second and Third Terms," in the same number, pp. 51-55, describes an experiment with less capable pupils who cannot master the materials of the more formal courses.

Professor C. C. Eckhardt's *Outline of the History of Modern Europe 1815-1929* (Boulder, Colo., 1930. Pp. 76) is intended presumably for the use of students in an introductory course. There are fifteen major divisions in the course; each includes a guidance outline, and lists of dates, questions, references, and maps. The plan of organization is in part topical and in part based upon the development of events in different nations. The setting for the course is developed in terms of the commercial, agricultural, and industrial revolutions, and these changes are presented for different nations in their chronological sequence in relation to other events. The different divisions of the early part of the course are concerned with the history of nations to about the middle of the nineteenth century, while the later developments in these countries are organized in later divisions. Imperialism, the World War, and post-war problems and events form the last sections of the manual. Social and economic phases including "The Progress of Science," revolutionary labor movements, and the feminist movement, are developed in a manner commensurate with their importance in the trend of events. Suggestions for the study of history and general suggestions for study are appended. The manual

contains many features, particularly in organization, which would seem to make it a useful aid for college students.

In "Measuring Results in Geography," in *Journal of Geography*, XXX, November, 1931, 342-45, Freda Lancaster describes procedures in the construction of tests for use in the measurement of the results of instruction in fifth-grade geography in Fort Wayne, Indiana. Sample items, both satisfactory and imperfect, are included. Emphasis is placed upon relationships between facts. W. H. Haas, in "The Teaching of Geography as a Science," in the same number of pp. 323-29, restates the elements of scientific method, mentions some of the criticisms of instruction in geography, and emphasizes the need for the development of a sense of orderliness, the interpretation of complete relationships between facts, and instruction which requires clear and logical thinking based upon sound premises to definite conclusions in the teaching of geography. Helen R. Hartshorne, in the same number, pp. 348-49, contributes a "Crossword Puzzle" developed by a seventh-grade pupil when he was studying the geography of South America.

The Illustrations Committee of the (English) Historical Association, Miss Dorothy Dymond, general editor, has compiled *A List of Illustrations for Use in History Teaching in Schools* (London, W.C. 1, Russell Square, the Historical Association. Historical Association Leaflet No. 82. Pp. 32). The materials are assembled in six sections, including mechanical aids, lists of illustrations, addresses of publishers and distributors, series of illustrative materials useful for young children, and illustrated books. The lists of illustrations—the largest part of the pamphlet—are arranged by countries covering all periods of history. Each list includes such sub-classifications as architecture; social life; occupations, sports, and costumes; political history; portraits; and books, maps, and manuscripts. Teachers who are familiar with the wealth of illustrative materials published in Europe will find this pamphlet an indispensable aid; teachers who are unfamiliar with European collections will find in these lists an opportunity to become acquainted with representative illustrative materials, which seem to be practically unknown to many teachers of the social studies in the United States.

The F. A. Day Junior High School, Newton, Massachusetts, has a radio system which includes equipment for broadcasting speeches from the principal's office or the assembly room to all parts of the school building. An interesting use of this equipment is in connection with the teaching of current events. Each Friday morning during the homeroom period a program is broadcast by pupils on current events of the week. Pupils in the school write questions on current events which are dropped into a box in the corridor, and the most significant of these questions are answered by pupils in the ninth-grade social science classes during the broadcasting period. One question is asked at the close of each broadcasting period, and pupils of all grades are urged to write their answers to it. The best two or three answers are read by their authors in the following broadcasting program. The character of the questions asked and answered by pupils is said to be unusually mature. The device has apparently stimulated considerable interest in the integration of current events with regular social science courses.

J. Russell Smith, in "Geography for School Superintendents," *School Executives Magazine*, L, June, 1931, 478-79, 492, summarizes reasons for the neglect of geography in the schools, discusses the concept of geography as "a study of relationships between earth and life," the contributions which geography may make to the education of the "world citizen," and the difficulty of the presentation of geography in schools.

The Patterson Test or Study Exercises on the Constitution of the United States, by Raymond G. Patterson, published by Public School Publishing Company, Bloomington, Illinois, is a 69-item test on 56 parts or phases of the Constitution. Each item is of the multiple-choice or selection type. A directions and class-record sheet as well as an answer sheet are provided. The answers are spaced to match the test items, and the article, section, and clause which contain the information to answer each item are provided.

A regional conference of the American Political Science Association was held at the State Teachers College, Upper Montclair, New Jersey, November 21. The morning session included the following program: Prof. Earl H. Crecraft, University of Akron, director of American Political Science Association Study of Citizenship Training, "The Place of Government in the Secondary Schools"; Prof. Edgar Dawson, Hunter College, New York City, "Training Teachers to Teach Government"; Discussion by Howard Dare White, director of secondary education, State Department of Education; R. A. Coan, Rahway High School; Robert T. Adriance, East Orange High School. Persons attending the conference were luncheon guests of the college. The afternoon session included the following program: Prof. J. Lynn Barnard, Ursinus College, "Problem Method of Teaching Government"; Prof. R. W. Hatch, Montclair State Teachers College, "Case Method of Teaching Government"; Discussion by John T. Greenan, East Orange High School; Charles R. Hollenbach, Atlantic City High School; Raymond R. Ammarelle, Barringer High School, Newark.

The history section of District 7 of the Michigan Education Association held its meeting in Sault Ste. Marie, October 2. The program included: Ruth Haddock, head of history department, Sault Ste. Marie High School, "Some Basic Principles in Individualizing Instruction in History"; F. Davis, Menominee High School, "Some Concrete Evidences, Illustrations, and Methods of Individualizing Instruction in History"; Arthur E. Erickson, L. L. Wright High School, Ironwood, "A Composite Versus a Separate Course in Social Science."

The meeting of the social science section of District 2 of the Michigan Education Association on October 22 at Saginaw included the following program: Laurence Lundberg, Flint, "Vocabulary Growth as an Aid in the Social Sciences"; Anna Pequignot, Central Junior High School, Saginaw, "Demonstration—Socialized Recitation in American History"; "Round-Table Discussion," led by Leo S. Beach, head of history department, Handy Junior High School, Bay City. Emily R. Kickhafer, head of social studies department, Flint Secondary Schools, is chairman of the social studies section.

The meeting of the history section of District 3 of the Michigan Education Association was held in Jackson, October 23. The program included: Russell Gilson, Eastern High School, Lansing, "Contract Method of Teaching History"; Elizabeth Weick and Mary Slater, West Intermediate School, Jackson, "Demonstration of Class Work in Junior High School History: (1) An Informal Pupil Discussion Resulting from Individualization of Instruction; (2) Individualization of Instruction in Operation." Clarence S. Hood, Owosso High School, served as chairman.

The meeting of the history section of District 4 of the Michigan Education Association was held in Grand Rapids on October 30. The program included: Emma Zoe Muhlen, Union High School, Grand Rapids, "Educational Trends in Present-Day Germany"; A. F. Barnard, University High School, University of Chicago, "The Unit System in the University High School." Mary F. Conlon, head of history department, Union High School, Grand Rapids, is chairman of the history section.

The meeting of the social science section of District 6 of the Michigan Education Association, on October 17, in Detroit, included the following program: Helen Platt, Ann Arbor, "The Contribution of the Elementary School to the Social Studies Program"; Mark Jefferson, State Normal College, Ypsilanti, "Some of the Fundamentals of the Social Studies as Seen by a Geographer"; Round tables led by Ruth Albers, Roosevelt High School, Ferndale, and Emily R. Kickhafer, head of social studies department, Flint Secondary Schools. Edith C. Hoyle, University High School, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, is chairman of the section.

The Iowa Society of Social Science Teachers convened at several sessions in connection with the annual meeting of the Iowa State Teachers Association in Des Moines, November 12-14. One session, November 12, with Howard R. Anderson, University of Iowa, presiding, included the following program: C. E. Miller, Webster City High School, "The Social Sciences in Training for Citizenship"; Earle D. Ross, Iowa State College, "The Public Domain: A Retrospect"; Carl H. Erbe, Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls. "Methods of Teaching Government in the High School." The second session on the following day, with L. B. Schmidt, Iowa State College, presiding, included the following program: Joseph E. Kallenbach, Iowa State College, "Literary Tests for Voters"; W. Ross Livingston, State University of Iowa, "American Relations in the Pacific"; W. A. Brindley, Iowa State Teachers College, "The Coaching of Debators." Officers are: president, Howard R. Anderson, State University of Iowa, Iowa City; secretary, Fred A. Pennington, Woodrow Wilson Junior High School, Des Moines; chairman of the executive committee, L. B. Schmidt, Iowa State College.

The social studies section of the Northwest Iowa Teachers Association, at its meeting held on October 9 in Dubuque, listened to the following program: Ward Anderson, State University of Iowa, "Correlating the Social Studies"; H. C. Fox, University of Dubuque, "Socializing the Social Studies." Officers are: chairman, Julius Tickle, Dubuque; secretary, Sam Houston, Independence.

The social studies section of the Northwest Iowa Teachers Association met at Sioux City on October 9. The program included: Rev. Merton S. Rice, Detroit, "Teaching the Student of History to Think Clearly on Modern Questions from the Study of History"; Rev. James J. Davies, Sioux City, "American History Through the Eyes of an Englishman"; Burton R. Jones, Spencer, "Character Training Through the Teaching of History."

The social science section of the western division of the Montana Education Association held its meeting on October 23, at Helena, with Edith E. Geck, of Kalispell, as chairman and presiding officer. At a breakfast session, Roy M. Austin, Twin Bridges Schools, talked on "Putting the Kick into Social Science." At the session which followed, papers were read by the following persons: Mrs. Ida M. Southwick, Missoula Junior High School, "Two Objectives in the Teaching of Civics"; H. M. Kauffman, Flathead County High School, Kalispell, "The Social Science Teacher and Extracurricular Activities"; Jeanette Donaldson, state supervisor of elementary education, Olympia, Washington.

The social science section of the North Central District of the Montana Education Association held its meeting at Lewistown, on October 24, with Norman Wampler, Big Sandy Schools, chairman. The program included the following speakers: David J. Jones, Intermountain Union College, Helena, "The History of Social Science"; C. B. Worthen, Fergus County High School, Lewistown, "The New Social Science Course of Study for Montana." Mr. Worthen is chairman of the committee engaged in the development of the new state course, which is announced for publication in January. Prof. N. C. Abbott, Eastern Normal School, Billings, discussed "The Use of Visual Education in Connection with Social Science" in another group meeting.

The social science section of the Eastern Division of the Montana Education Association held its sessions on October 23 at Miles City, with Isabelle Johnson, Billings, chairman. The program included: Mrs. M. D. Whitney, Miles City, "The Use of Collateral Reading in Elementary and Secondary Social Science"; Elizabeth Ireland, state superintendent of public instruction, "The New State Course of Study in Social Science."

The meeting of the social science section of District 4 of the Nebraska State Teachers Association, in Hastings, on October 29, included the following program: C. Roy Gates, Grand Island, "The Economic Depression and the Schools"; Prof. J. O. Hertzler, University of Nebraska, "The Social World and the High School Sociology Course." Edward E. Carstens, Grand Island, is president of the section. The meeting of the history section of District 6, in Sidney, on October 29, included: Robert L. Pullen, "History Made Interesting"; Ruth Beauchamp, "The Effect of Transportation on Old Brownsville."

Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROFESSOR HARRY J. CARMAN AND J. BARTLET BREBNER, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

Anza's California Expeditions. By Herbert Eugene Bolton. University of California Press, Berkeley, 1930. Five volumes. Vol I, xxi, 529 pp.; Vol II, xii, 473 pp.; Vol. III, xviii, 436 pp.; Vol. IV, xiii, 552 pp.; Vol. V, xviii, 426 pp.

A generation ago the content of American history dealt largely with what is now the eastern part of the United States. Even today many teachers and students are prone to overlook many significant aspects of the history of the trans-Mississippi West. All too little attention, for example, has been paid to the Spanish contribution to the beginnings of the Far West. Fortunately in recent years an increasing number of scholars are not only devoting themselves to the history of the region but are giving it its proper setting in the story of the development of American civilization.

In the front rank of these scholars stands Herbert Eugene Bolton, professor of American history and director of the Bancroft Library, University of California. Indeed, Professor Bolton may well be regarded as the successor of H. H. Bancroft, who did so much to center attention on the history of the Pacific Slope and the old Spanish domains now a part of the United States. Certainly no one in recent years has done more than Professor Bolton to further the study of the colonial beginnings of the Far West.

The five volumes here reviewed mark the latest addition to his long list of contributions. They chronicle Juan Bautista de Anza's expeditions and the founding of San Francisco in 1776. With the acquisition of Louisiana at the close of the Seven Years' War, Spain found herself in possession of what is now practically the entire southwestern United States. But her possession was merely nominal, for a hostile Indian frontier stretched from the Gulf of Mexico to the Gulf of California. Moreover, English frontiersmen were casting covetous glances at the west bank of the Mississippi and Russians threatened Spanish domination on the Pacific. To meet these dangers Spain sent representatives to arrange a line of presidios extending from Gulf to Gulf, fortified the line of the Mississippi, and occupied the harbors of San Diego and Monterey. To strengthen her flimsy hold on New California she planned to plant another and stronger colony on the Pacific Coast and to establish overland communications between the new province and the settled mainland of Mexico. Anza was chosen for this double task of trail blazer and colonizer. Hence these volumes.

For the person who cannot afford time to read all five, Volume I, entitled *An Outpost of Empire,* is perhaps the most important. In this volume Professor Bolton graphically recites the story of Anza's expeditions which led to the founding of the city which today "stands beside the Golden Gate and looks out across the Western Sea"—a city which in its beginning was, as Professor Bolton well says, "an outpost of empire . . . a buffer community on the very northwestern margin of Spain's vast realms . . . On the fringe of Russia's austral domain and on the edge of Britain's fur-trading sphere." The first two chapters "Empire" and "Fringes of Empire" admirably appraise Spain's colonial enterprise and thus help to orientate the reader.

Excellent as Professor Bolton's vigorous narrative is, space limits make it impossible for him to detail the actualities of Anza's pathfinding and colonizing work. These, however, are recorded in the other volumes, which in a very true sense, constitute the raw material for Volume I. Volume II, *Opening a Land Route to California*, contains the diaries of the first Anza expedition (1774), eight in number, and printed for the first time in any language. Three belong to Anza himself, two to Father Diaz, and three to Father Garcés. Fathers Diaz and Garcés were friars who accompanied Anza as diarists. Volume II also includes Father Garcés' "brief account" (a lengthy letter) to the viceroy, Bucareli, and Father Palóu's diary recording the exploration of San Francisco Bay, which took place between the two Anza expeditions.

Volume III, *The San Francisco Colony*, which covers Anza's second expedition (1775-1776), records three diaries: one by Anza, another by Father Font, and a third by Father Eixarch. Father Font, chaplain and astronomer, appears to have been a diarist par excellence. In fact, Professor Bolton avers that Font's "Short Diary" is unsurpassed in all the long history of exploration in the Western Hemisphere. This volume also contains Father Palou's and Lieutenant Moraga's accounts of the founding of San Francisco. Morago was Anza's second in command and was as much as any one else responsible for the success of the San Francisco settlement. This volume also includes an interesting prefatory note summarizing Professor Bolton's experiences in retracing Anza's trail.

Of the remaining volumes, the fourth is devoted entirely to Father Font's account of the second expedition. Anyone who reads these volumes will readily agree with Professor Bolton that Father Font was a superior diarist. Apparently nothing escaped his observation and he had a way of recording what he saw in most interesting fashion. One in search of information about the typography of the country, the Indians, or the personnel of the expedition will find it in this volume. In the last volume Professor Bolton has assembled the more pertinent correspondence relating to the expeditions. Incidentally none of these documents have previously been published.

To criticize these volumes or any part of them is well-nigh impossible. They represent twenty years of meticulous scholarship. Professor Bolton has actually traversed every foot of ground covered by Anza. More than half of the excellent pictures which illustrate the volumes were taken by him. The ten maps in Volume I are remarkable for their clarity. The volumes cover virgin ground, the material in each is carefully translated and arranged, and each is indexed. In a word, they exemplify fine historical scholarship. C.

America Moves West. By Robert E. Riegel. Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1930. 595 pp.

Until 1924 there was no general survey of the American frontier. In that year Frederic L. Paxson's *History of the American Frontier* was published. Since then, until the publication of Riegel's volume, it has been the only one in the field. A judgment of a book which begins by comparing it with another book is in some respects inadvisable and yet the identity of the subject of the two books suggests such an approach. The books resemble one another in general make-up as well as in subject matter. Riegel's volume has 566 pages of text in fifty-two chapters, whereas Paxson's fifty-nine chapters are contained in 573 pages. Even the chapter titles are often similar. Paxson's history has a chapter entitled "Frontier Panaceas," and in Riegel one is found entitled "Western Panaceas." "Pike's Peak or Bust" and "The Disappearance of the Frontier" in both volumes are examples of identical titles. Perhaps the common subject is of such a nature as not to permit much variation in the general designs of the two books. The analogy ends with the general design, however, since the two authors differ sharply in their techniques or working the materials into a finished form. Also the author's emphases are not alike. Riegel displays in his book a talent to synthesize the social, economic, and political components of the American frontier. He writes perspicuously, interprets with an enlightened restraint, and introduces neat witty fillips which enliven the book without marring its dignity. Riegel's chief contribution is an adequately detailed portrayal of the social life of frontier communities. His descriptions of the picturesque characters, the food, the clothing, the shelters, the housefurnishings, the amusements, the schools, the religious outlook, and the intellectual attitude of the frontier dwellers impart vividness and roundness to his treatment. Of course, since the lengths of the books are approximately equal, the large amount of social history in Riegel's volume displaces an equal amount of political history in Paxson's. Perhaps it would be more accurate to say that Riegel has treated the political history with less detail than has Paxson. Riegel, nevertheless, omits nothing of a political nature which might be considered indispensable. Perhaps most of the eliminated material is advantageously discarded anyway, since surplus details muddy the waters of political history. Riegel has a brief summary of the frontier during the colonial period, but as did Paxson, he really begins his theme with the decade preceding the American Revolution. It does seem too bad that both of these authors in their splendid books should ignore the origins of the frontier, which are to be found in the colonial period and nowhere else. Riegel at the back of the book includes chapter bibliographies which should be extremely useful for those who would like to wander farther into the literature of the American frontier.

SAMUEL MCKEE, JR.

Columbia University

The Story of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, 1827-1927. By Edward Hungerford. G. P. Putnam's Sons, New York, 1928. 2 vols., 373 pp., 365 pp. $10.

The Romance of the Rails. By Agnes C. Laut. R. M. McBride & Co., New York, 1929. 2 vols., 590 pp. $7.50.

These two works, each of marked value for the high school or college library, supplement each other very helpfully on a theme whose fundamental importance in American history needs no emphasis. The Baltimore & Ohio, one of the great railway systems of present-day America and the core of one of the major regional groupings now in process of development, was also the first of the trunk lines, the first steam railway of real importance in the western world, and began its career within a very few years of the first railroads to be developed anywhere. Its beginnings through the enterprise of a far-sighted group of Baltimore men under the leadership of Philip E. Thomas, whose brother Evan had recently visited England and inspected the newly-opened Stockton and Darlington, the completion of the first section to Ellicott's Mills and its gradual extension to Cumberland and to the Ohio, constitute a story that is not only intensely interesting but one that involves many aspects of American economic, social, and political life, East and West, and is typical of the problems of railway progress in general and in many respects of the general advance of invention and technology in those earlier days of the Industrial Revolution. Mr. Hungerford tells this story clearly and accurately, and extends it to the full span of the first century of the B. & O. of the American railroad enterprise. While written in entertaining style, it is only very occasionally that the work runs into something like journalistic treatment and irrelevancies are introduced for general effect. It has plenty of substance, with numerous well-chosen documentary material, and plenty of specific fact concerning names, places, and times. There are scores of well-made, usually full-page or even double-page, illustrations, including portraits, locomotives and cars, roadways and apparatus, bridges, towns and cities, and documents, both manuscript and printed. The many extracts from contemporary material, often as entertaining as they are instructive, will make an especial appeal to the student and to the more intelligent reader of our history.

Miss Laut has allowed herself somewhat less space than Mr. Hungerford's in which to deal with the story of American railroads in general, with earlier chapters on the beginnings of the steam engine and the era of canals and im-

proved roads, but instead of attempting a comprehensive history the author has sought to present in highly popular style the representative men and events, sketching the story so as to show "The Romance of the Rails." Early beginnings, mechanical progress, the influence of railroad development especially on the West, and numerous outstanding personalities such as Vanderbilt, Hill, and Harriman, are treated. The author seems to have searched many documents and special works for material, and has much of interest to tell, but there is a curious mingling of the important and the trivial, a somewhat incongruous alternation of substance with chatty and sentimental comment. Extracts of interest and value are often included, but many of them are not identified, to the constant exasperation of the discriminating reader. Digressions that tell nothing of moment about railroads and the thin, sketchy opening chapters, might well have been omitted to make place for an adequate account of the beginnings of the Baltimore and Ohio, for example, and some notice of Philip E. Thomas whose quiet personality may not seem at a superficial glance to be very romantic but certainly left its mark on the railroad history of America. A number of useful illustrations are included, some of them reproductions of contemporary material. The general tone is very sympathetic toward the railroads and their management, and the viewpoint highly optimistic. In spite of annoying faults *The Romance of the Rails* contains a large proportion of interesting, useful, and illuminating material.

Both works have a general index. Both are attractive in format, but the Hungerford, in large octavo, is a really handsome piece of book making. J. M. GAMBRILL

Columbia University

The Jacobins. By Clarence Crane Brinton, The Macmillan Co. New York: 312 pp. $2.60.

The Life of Madame Roland. By Madeleine Clémenceau-Jacquemaire, Longmans, Green, New York: 345 pp. $4.00.

Of these two books diversely connected with the French Revolution, Mme Clémenceau-Jacquemaire's is a biography in a very personal style, partly conventional historiography and partly descriptive psychology, which lends it a literary interest surpassing even that of the genuine contributions to knowledge that its author makes. Clarence Brinton's work on the Jacobins, on the other hand, is professedly "An Essay in the New History," and its thesis is such as to make a discussion of it a valuable preliminary to a review of the French historian's work.

Forgetting for a moment what the "New History" may properly mean, I prefer to give in the writer's own words the hypothesis he has assumed in dealing with the Jacobins: ". . . the new historian must eschew narration and supplant the character with the unit. Danton is a character, and defies generalization; the Jacobin is a unit, and will fit into statistics almost as well as a guinea-pig or a vitamin."

One may, of course, quarrel at once with the historian's determination to "eschew narration." Narration, to Professor Brinton, seems to mean the recounting of unusual events. Instead, Professor Brinton wishes to read—and to write—about diet, sanitation, industry. And about those topics, which I am perfectly willing to grant him as exceedingly interesting, he wants no narration. He wants "scientific law," which in turn he wishes to use as "an instrument of prediction." The result of these aspirations is to him perfectly obvious: the historian must eschew narration and limit himself to statistics. In other words, history no longer aims at presenting a unified picture of life, but at deriving from specific instances a "law" which will theoretically be applicable to other instances and in some cases predict them. The fallacy of this position is obvious. It is the fallacy that statistics, or quantitation, is the basis of science—that the so-called "laws" of science are something different and beyond the mere description of how things act. Now, the merest acquaintance with the laboratory disproves these assumptions. Science is largely descriptive, its "laws" (e.g., Boyle's Law) are often limiting cases that never occur in nature, and its technique involves as many exceptions, un-

certainties, and individualities as the literary or historical technique.

So much for Professor Brinton's assumptions. His practice, through three hundred pages of very able research, is one long denial of his initial theory. One need but quote at random to show that these hard and fast characteristics of the Jacobin guinea-pig which were promised us are nothing more than carefully sifted opinions:

Brigail thinks that at Auch and in the Gers, the clubs were founded by freemasons. . . In the north, the same *would seem to be true* for Lille . . . the three masonic dots are *not infrequently* to be found accompanying signatures. Yet these masonic signatures *are rarely in a majority*. The register of the society of Toulouse, *for instance*, . . . has only four such signatures out of thirty-eight."

The italics are mine and show the unscientific character of the statements or of their basis. Again, what is meant by "The typical eighteenth-century mason was a cultivated *bourgeois* or nobleman"? Whether true or not, what law does it establish regarding masons? Sometimes, Professor Brinton's fidelity to his "method" involves him in contradictions. Still speaking of the revolutionary clubs, he says, "And the rather juvenile love of secrecy and brotherhood ritual needs hardly any subtler explanation than a well-worn reference to human nature." How dare a scientist poke gentle fun at the constitution of his guinea-pigs? For, if the juvenile habits are widespread, if they are characteristic of human nature (whatever that may be) do they not cease to be juvenile by becoming general behavior and setting the norm? In that case a subtler explanation must be sought.

Despite this second fallacy, of bulking together groups not sufficiently far differentiated, Mr. Brinton's work is full of valuable information. He has spent much time, much thought, in collecting his material, and his arrangement of it is admirable. Only the forcing of it into arbitrary categories merits criticism, for when he says "At least one society . . . did thus and so," "At Tours, on the other hand, . . ." it becomes painfully apparent that he is narrating, describing, and arriving at no general law whatever, though the reader may intuitively obtain an excellent impression of the Jacobins and their work from his *scholarly* but hardly *scientific* account.

Madame Clémenceau-Jacquemaire's Life of *Madame Roland* presents in contrast with the previous work a fair sample of the older, or at least, more conventional biographical methods, that is to say, it has all the faults incidental to narrative, to quotation from sources, to digression from the course of life-events. On its positive side, however, it is an admirable picture of its subject. It avoids the usual sentimentalizing concerning the bourgeois revolutionary heroine by the simple device of giving a good two-thirds of the space to the period preceding the actual hectic days of her husband's coming to power. It steers clear of suffragette propaganda by showing the definitely feminine shortcomings of this eighteenth-century would-be Aspasia. Finally, it displays all the resourcefulness of intelligent scholarship allied to a certain sense of events'—possibly acquired by the author through contact with her distinguished and eminently realistic father.

This last quality, so difficult of acquisition outside the realm of practical power itself, so rare in the otherwise competent and industrious scholar, must of course be tempered by a steady gaze at the information before him. Habits of authority cannot be carried over into historiography without resultant distortion, and the best safeguard for the reader is a comparison of the generalizations offered with the documents consulted. This, Mme Clémenceau-Jacquemaire provides every opportunity for us to do, even to the point of occasional surfeit. Short of reading the *Memoirs*, and the Letters of Mme Roland as edited by Perroud, in addition to wading through Buchez and Roux, the present compact work furnishes as direct an account of the facts at hand as can be desired within the limits of a single volume.

Unfortunately, as in the case of so many excellent works of French scholarship, the translation into English is more than occasionally defective. True, the errors in sense are not such as to contradict the meaning of the original, but they are serious enough to alter the force and the shading of the text, as well as to annoy the literate by frequent departure from correct idiom: when will publishers decide to pay as much for competent translators as they do for skillful binders?

Jacques Barzun

Columbia University

French Public Opinion and Foreign Affairs, 1870-1914. By E. Malcolm Carroll. The Century Company, New York, 1931. x, 348 pp.

This scholarly and painstaking work deals with a phase of history which must inevitably receive greater attention at the hands of historians. Public opinion undoubtedly played an important rôle in the international relations of Europe in the half-century preceding the World War. It constituted a factor with which diplomats and governments had to reckon. In the case of France the pressure of public opinion at times apparently forced the government to take some official action. At other times it served as a reason for resistance in diplomatic crises or, on the contrary, caused the government to moderate its demands and become more conciliatory.

Although public opinion was formed in France by a number of agencies, Professor Carroll discovered that the newspaper press was by all odds the most effective instrument for influencing it and the most important medium of its expression. Newspaper editorials were the chief medium for the discussion of French foreign affairs, and in this discussion the Paris press held a dominant position for the entire country.

Not always during this period was French public opinion spontaneous and well-informed. On numerous occasions it had to be "mobilized," to be "aroused," to be "organized," to be "called upon to resent," to be "prepared." Upon occasion, too, it was deliberately deceived by the government. At all times an aggressive minority of chauvinists stood eager to resent in the name of patriotism alleged insults to French dignity, prestige, honor, or rights. They constituted the most unstable element in French public opinion. Usually their tirades were directed at their arch enemy, Germany. On two or three occasions, however, their bitterness against England became so great as to drive them to contemplate an alliance even with Germany herself. Nevertheless, despite the fulminations of the chauvinists, apparently the great mass of French public opinion, Professor Carroll concludes, was usually inclined toward moderation and a desire for peace.

F. Lee Benns

Indiana University

The Labor Movement in Post-War France. By David J. Saposs. Columbia University Press, New York, 1931. xviii, 508 pp.

The excellent standard established by preceding volumes in the *Social and Economic Studies of Post-War France* is continued in this volume. It is well written, carefully organized, thoroughly documented, and adequately indexed. It contains a selected bibliography and is provided with many enlightening statistical tables.

Part I, comprising nearly one-half of the book, is perhaps the most valuable section, for it traces and clarifies the drastic reorientation which has occurred in the French trade-union movement since the war. During the war the Confédération Générale du Travail (C.G.T.) largely abandoned its former revolutionary principles and adopted a policy of reformism. Immediately after the armistice, therefore, the Anarchists, Communits, and Syndicalists within its ranks withdrew from the C.G.T. and organized the Confédération Générale du Travail Unitaire (C.G.T.U.). The communists soon secured the ascendency in this new organization and subordinated it to the Third International. Thereupon the Anarchists in turn withdrew from the C.G.T.U. and founded their own Confédération Générale du Travail Syndicaliste-Revolutionnaire (C.G.T.S.R.). The Syndicalist minority, not

to be outdone, refused to endorse this action of the Anarchists and ultimately organized themselves into the Ligue Syndicaliste. In addition to these radical brands of trade unionism there was founded in 1919 the Confédération Française des Travailleurs (C.F.T.C.). This is the organ of the conservative French workers of Catholic Christian profession. In this mélange of confederations the C.G.T. and the C.G.T.U. rank first and second respectively in strength, with the C.F.T.C. a somewhat poor third.

Just as the trade-union movement suffered disintegration, the political forces of French labor became hopelessly divided after the war. Part v discusses this situation. The Unified Socialist Party, which comprised all the professed Socialists of France after 1905, split in 1920 into the Socialist Party and the Communist Party. The former, affiliated with the Second International, is willing to join in coalition governments; the latter, affiliated with the Third International, refuses to assume even partial governmental responsibility. The two parties oppose each other on all important issues.

The other three parts of the book (193 pp.) discuss "The Interest of the State in Labor," "Employers and Organized Labor," and "The Coöperative Movement." Space does not permit a discussion of the contents of these sections which the reviewer believes contain less that is new than the rest of the volume.

"On the whole," Mr. Saposs concludes, "The French labor movement has made an about-face. Before the War it was turned towards the Mediterranean and away from Western and Northern Europe. Since the War its position has been largely reversed."

F. Lee Benns

Indiana University

In the Senate. By George Wharton Pepper. University of Pennsylvania Press, Philadelphia, 1930. 148 pp. $2.00.

Family Quarrels, The President, The Senate, The House. By George Wharton Pepper. Baker Voorhis, New York, 1931. 192 pp.

From five years of experience in the United States Senate Mr. Pepper took a particularly active interest in three practical problems: maintenance of working relations between the President, Senate, and House; keeping the United States free from European subtleties hidden within the convenant of the League and the proctocol of the World Court; and balancing one's duties as a member of the Senate with one's obligations as an officeholder by grace of Pennsylvania votes. First through the medium of popularly written magazine articles, and second through a series of three lectures at the University of Virginia, the author has found opportunity to express his views, orientating them with what befell him as successor to Boies Penrose. More recently, publication of these lectures and articles with some material added has given us the gist of the political reactions of a United States senator temporarily enlisted from the higher ranks of the nation's prominent attorneys.

Except possibly for a few passages with reference to the World Court, the author maintains a dispassionate approach to his subjects, surveying them calmly from several angles. As he sagely observes, "I am so constituted that when two opposing extremes are presented I instinctively suspect them both. This judicial quality, developed by study and teaching, undoubtedly unfits a man for political life" (*Family Quarrels*, p. 85). Again, he tells his readers concerning a case he argued and lost, "There is no critic of a decision so unreliable as losing counsel," and refers to the brief of his "able and successful antagonist" (*Ibid*, p. 124). He can see that it was impossible for a man of the stamp of Penrose to approve of him after he ranged himself against Quay; and he explains frankly that his own election to Penrose's place on the Republican National Committee was due to a lack of enemies in turn due to a lack of political experience. Surely such comments indicate a breadth of view and a candor which, were they more widely practiced by our lawmakers, would have a salutary effect upon both statutes and *Memoirs*.

But at the same time, the author remains essentially reserved, aristocratic in feeling. His innate distaste for the high pressure salesmanship of popular political practice is indicated by references to this day and age "when reserve is a lost art, privacy an illegitimate luxury, and publicity both a means of self-exploitation and a panacea for public ills," . . . and the apparent effect upon treaties is that "the greater the reason for privacy, the greater the pressure for publicity" (*Family Quarrels*, pp. 169, 13). The main difficulty, it seems, is that "a senator is expected to do simultaneously the work of a college professor and of a bell-hop," while all the henchmen who helped elect him to this dual rôle relentlessly demand that their party activities be capitalized (*In the Senate*, p. 25).

While Mr. Pepper's characteristics in a measure set him apart from the average participant in politics, yet he possesses a sense of humor and a sympathetic appreciation of the complex emotions assailing the arbiters of the nation's destiny. "It is a subtle thing—this interplay of human interests; and in the Senate you sense it all about you. . . . If the President has vetoed your favorite measure you are apt to regard his next nominee as disqualified for a seat on the bench because of his limited social outlook" (*Family Quarrels*, pp. 92-93). As to the wasting of the Senate's time with irrelevant and insincere speeches, Mr. Pepper reminds us that "Those who have the capacity to entertain the gallery are constantly tempted to perform. Those who lack this capacity are frankly contemptuous of their performing colleagues" (*In the Senate* p. 21). And toward all Senate business the public is likely to be supercritical, because of the essential functions of the Senate in serving as check upon those more popular entities, the House and the President.

While these small volumes obviously are designed for semi-popular reading, a student who glances through them can not but wish that Mr. Pepper had found it possible to enlarge certain provocative statements. One would like to know, especially, why he believes Penrose belonged to that select group who have served the nation as well as the state with rare success; and some may want it further demonstrated before they could agree that the parliamentary history of the Versailles Treaty demonstrated "the perfection of the Senate machinery for the presentation, discussion, and decision of complicated questions" (*Family Quarrels*, p. 68); or that the legislation of 1920-1928 surpasses the record of "any quarter century of our national history" (*In the Senate*, p. 69). Students of practical government would profit by further details concerning the special skills of Vice-President Dawes and Majority Leader Curtis in oiling legislative machinery; and the references to the present bitter warfare of sectional interests make one wish Mr. Pepper would contribute further, as he undoubtedly could, to our understanding of this vitally important force in American life.

Regardless of past difficulties in the Senate and disappointment at defeat in the primaries, the author takes a cheerful view. The Senate, he believes, has a high average of ability upon the whole and may develop a new sense of responsibility. We must not expect too much too soon, for as a nation we still lack the *mores* to fit the realities of modern popular government. "We have evolved worthy standards of conduct for professional baseball players. We are hopeful of a similar evolution in the case of prize fighters. It would be lamentable if only senators were to be classed as invincibly barbarous" (*Family Quarrels*, p. 184).

Jeannette Paddock Nichols

Philadelphia

Book Notes

Under the editorship of Professor J. D. M. Ford, director of the Harvard Council of Hispano-American Studies, the Harvard University Press has published (1931) the following four pamphlets: *A Tentative Bibliography of the Belles-Lettres of Uruguay* (22 pp.) by Alfred Coester; *A Tentative Bibliography of Brazilian Belles-Lettres* (201 pp.) by J. D. M. Ford, A. F. Whittem, and M. I. Raphael; *A Tentative Bibliography of Belles-Lettres of Santo Domingo* (31 pp.) by S. M. Waxman; and *A Tentative Bibliography of*

the Belles-Lettres of Porto Rico (61 pp.) by Guillermo Rivera. Since these works are preliminary to definitive editions it is the hope of the compilers that those who can will suggest additional references in the field of literature. At present nearly a dozen scholars in the United States and Hispanic America are engaged in the task of compiling these bibliographies, the usefulness of which is of course self-evident.—A.C.W.

Alfred A. Knopf has recently issued a revised edition of J. Fred Rippy's *Latin America in World Politics* (New York, 1931, 301 pp.). The first edition proved very popular and was even used in some schools as a textbook. In the new volume a chapter (XIV) entitled "The American International Movement" has been added to take the place of the last chapter in the first edition, which was called "Current Problems in Inter-American Relations-Conclusions." Changes have also been made in the two chapters entitled "Participation of the Latin-American Nations in World Affairs" and "Yankee Hegemony and Latin-American Distrust." A map printed in the first edition has been omitted in the second.—A.C.W.

Now that the long-standing boundary dispute over the provinces of Peru has been settled to the satisfaction of Chile and Peru, if not to the satisfaction of Bolivia, a history of the subject is very welcome. In thirteen compact chapters Professor W. J. Dennis in his *Tacna and Arica. An Account of the Chile-Peru Boundary Dispute and of the Arbitrations by the United States,* (Yale University Press, 1931. xviii, 332 pp.) tells the story from the beginning to the end of the Nitrate boundary controversy. No essential facts are omitted, and the causes of the War of the Pacific and the history of the war itself (1879-1883) are clearly given. Throughout the whole picture the part played by the United States in the controversy is carefully discussed, while at the same time the other international aspects are treated. There are ten appendices containing documents pertinent to the subject, and six maps and several pictures clarify the story. On the whole this study has been so well done that the volume may well be considered definitive—A.C.W.

Mrs. Elsie Spice Eells, the author of a volume entitled *South America's Story* (New York, Robert M. McBride and Company, 1931. x, 366 pp.) has written several delightful books for children containing fairy and folk tales from South America. And now she has written this history of South America for children. In 47 chapters she has traced the story of South America from the days before the white man came. Her account is based upon the oral statements of South American friends and upon the pages of history texts used in South American schools. The volume's appeal is remarkable, and it will be of great interest to high school students and college freshman. It might conceivably be used as a textbook for secondary students. The book is beautifully decorated with Indian motifs by Frank Peers.—A.C.W.

Memoria de la Secretaria de Relaciones Exteriores de Agosto de 1930 a Julio de 1931 (Mexico, 1931. xxv, 2196 pp.; two volumes), a report of Genaro Estrada to the National Congress, continues the fine series of official publications of the Mexican Government. While the amount of material contained is so great as to make a catalogue impossible, it should be pointed out that the tables showing treaties of 1930-1931, as well as those signed since 1821, and the sections dealing with congresses, expeditions, the League of Nations, diplomatic and consular representatives, Mexican library work, patents, passport visas, publications, and publicity are of value to the student interested in source material, as well as serving as a useful handbook. The work in so far as a foreigner can determine is careful and thorough-going .—H.B.M.

The United States and Mexico, by J. Fred Rippy. (Crofts, New York, Revised Edition. 1931. 423 p. xi), traces the international relations of the United States and Mexico from the earliest days of Mexican independence to the present, with emphasis on the years from 1848 to 1878. The revision is particularly a matter of additional material dealing with the Taft administration, and the work of Hughes and Kellogg. The work of the late Dwight Morrow is reviewed and a short supplementary bibliography is appended. The revisions bring the book down to date, and it remains the outstanding authority on the subject.—H.B.M.

The career of Mary Stuart, Queen of Scotland, will probably always attract not only the students who hope to eliminate paradoxes from her puzzling behavior, but as well the romantic defenders of her questioned honor who can still be won by what we know of a very winsome queen. Mr. Andrew Dakers, whose *The Tragic Queen* (Houghton, Mifflin Co., Boston and New York, 1931. 319 pp. $5.00), has just been published, has a foot in either camp. His book is a sustained assault on the interpretations of Mary's behavior, at the hands either of her contemporary enemies or of her later critics, which reflect discredit upon her. It is not, however, a comprehensive reappraisal of all the original evidence, nor is it marked by any broad tolerance towards the many possibilities of contradictory action. A striking omission from the bibliography of even a "simple study" is that of Conyers Read's *Mr. Secretary Walsingham.* In all, Mr. Dakers has written for a popular audience a straight forward special plea for Queen Mary which would have pleased her and very likely have surprised her not a little.—B.

The battle of Gettysburg: The Country, the contestants, the results, by W. C. Storrick, Retired Superintendent of Guides. Harrisburg, Pennsylvania. (J. Horace McFarland Company. The Mount Pleasant Press. 1931. 80 pp. 50 cents; by mail 60 cents. Distributed by William G. Weaver, Jennie Wade Museum, Gettysburg, Pennsylvania.) is the first fruit of a long career of patient study and of close connection with his great national monument. It is more than just one more "short account." It is the most concise and clearly set forth story of this important event, in most attractive form and with excellent illustrations.

Teachers will find here a convenient and thoroughly reliable description of the battlefield. Pupils will find here a readable and easily understood body of essentials. Groups planning to visit Gettysburg, as so many school groups are doing these days, will find here a most practical means of preparation for intelligent appreciation of the event and its present commemorative features.

—Robert Fortenbaugh, *Gettysburg College*

El Libro Y El Puebla (Vol. IX, No. 3.; Published by the Department of Libraries of the Secretary of Public Education, Mexico City, May, 1931. 52 pp.) is one of the monthly bulletins published by the Mexican Government for the purpose of stimulating public interest in books. It contains brief articles on poetry, library work, bibliographies, and book notes.—H.B.M.

With passing years the true greatness of Thomas Jefferson becomes more evident. The outstanding reason for this is undoubtedly our increasing knowledge of Jefferson. Among those who in recent years have added to our fund of information about Jefferson is Professor Gilbert Chinard, of Johns Hopkins University. His most recent contribution to this end is entitled *The Correspondence of Jefferson and Du Pont de Nemours with an introduction on Jefferson and the Physiocrats* (The Johns Hopkins Press, Baltimore, 1931. CXXIII, 293 pp.). In this volume, as in *Letters of Lafayette and Jefferson,* Professor Chinard is at pains to have his reader see the real Jefferson. Although the author avows that his long introductory note is sketchy in character it contains a wealth of information and insight into the lives of both Jefferson and Du Pont. The correspondence which fills almost 300 pages is carefully selected and arranged under the three general heads: "The First Trip to America," "The Empire," and "Back to the Promised Land." The correspondence, as Professor Chinard well says, enable one to determine more definitely the points of contact between Jefferson and the Physiocrats as well as their different conceptions of society. Perhaps best of all the correspondence enables us to listen to the conversation of two men "whose

intellectual curiosity was encyclopedic and whose minds were decidedly a rare order." This volume like its predecessor is handsomely produced.

All persons interested in the evolution of American industrialism will want to read Donald L. McMurry's admirable study entitled *Coxey's Army, A Study of the Industrial Army Movement* of 1894 (Little, Brown, and Company, Boston, 1929 VIII, 331 pp.). Instead of being a "tattered aggregation of disreputables" Coxey's army, as well as the other industrial armies of the time, were in reality an expression of the unrest caused by employment after the Panic of 1893. These armies, as Professor McMurry indicates, were largely composed of workingmen, who in normal times would be working for a living. Furthermore he judiciously points out that though condemned by the propertied business element they nevertheless won a great deal of popular sympathy. Indeed, one is struck with the similarity of conditions in 1894 and 1931. In chapter XIII, "The Meaning of the Movement," the author skillfully shows that the movement meant different things to different people. The student of American history, however, will agree with Professor McMurry, that the movement was a reaction of the American frontier spirit to the growing industrialism which was replacing the old order. Coxeyism failed to realize its immediate program, but it was not a failure as a symptom that not all was well with the capitalist system.

The Yale University Press has just published on the McMillan foundation G. N. Roerich's *Trails to Inmost Asia* (1931. xx, 504 pp. $7.50). Author and press are to be congratulated on a fine piece of book production. The apparatus of illustrations, maps, and index is excellent. For historians chief interest will attach to an account of the life of Ja Lama, and to the research into the vestiges of the Central Asiatic nomad culture whose effects were felt from the Pacific to the Mediterranean. There is a long and detailed description of present Mongolia and of life in its capital, Urga. The most important material concerns the region between Urga and Central Tibet, but the Roerich Expedition did not, in general explore unknown territories. Mr. Roerich enjoys quite remarkable equipment for such an investigation. His book, however, contains little new scientific information except concerning the stone monuments of upland Tibet. It shows acquaintance with the literature of previous research, but is itself a journal of the journeys of the Roerich expedition, which reveals surprisingly little of what the party aimed to do or succeeded in doing beyond the often very adventurous travel which was involved in circling a large part of the Gobi Desert and crossing its southwestern expanse. B.

The fourth of the Royal Empire Society's *Imperial Studies* is G. S. Graham's *British Policy and Canada, 1774-1791* (Longmans, Green, 1930. xii, 161 pp. $4.00). It is a book which it is difficult to evaluate fairly because its author made this (his first) venture into a field which has been debatable ground for years among far more experienced historians. It is true that he has been the economic historian where they have been constitutionalists, but there is some danger that his main thesis may receive less attention than it deserves because of his inadequacies in secondary matters. He makes a number of exasperating petty errors which it would be a mistake to capitalize and he has not always taken pains to digest as well as read the work of his predecessors, notably Mrs. Jackson (whom he does not mention) and L. B. Namier. The great merit of his book is that it puts historical flesh on an idea previously put forward by a number of historians, but never systematically developed in print, i.e., that after the American Revolution it was hoped that Canada might be a sufficient substitute for New England, and become a British corridor for trade with the heart of the American Continent. It is to be hoped that Dr. Graham will go on with investigation of the economic aspects of British policy. For too long it has been investigated only for its constitutional elements. B.

The shady career of the author and the quite childish vagueness and naïveté of his sketches make it difficult to understand why Lincoln MacVeagh, The Dial Press, published Vladimir Orloff's *Underworld and Soviet* (New York, 1931, 274 pp.). B.

The Macmillan Company has published Part II of Professor Paul Jones' *Analytic Survey of Modern European History with Assignments and Special Exercises.* It covers the period 1815-1930. Like Part I it is based on Professor C. J. H. Hayes' *Political and Social History of Modern Europe* and gives optional assignments and brief bibliographies for each lesson. The suggestions for map studies and the lesson outlines should be of value to the teacher who has not worked them out for himself and for students who need a daily guide. S.B.C.

Bibliografia de la Reforma, la Intervencion y el Imperio by Jesus Guzman and Raz Guzman. (Vol. II.; Mexico, D.F., 1931.; pp. 434). This second volume on Mexican internal reforms and foreign intervention forms the nineteenth of a series of bibliographical works published by the Mexican State department in recent years under the general title of Mexican Bibliographic Monographs.

It carries the work from Luis Napoleon through Felix Zuloaga by alphabetical arrangement of authors, and has two appendices citing other works in the same field, some of which are in Spanish and some in English. There is also an index of authors and subjects for this and the preceding volume. This study provides a valuable source of information for the scholar interested in research in these fields. Without wishing to seem meticulous, there are some typographical errors which would stand correction. H.B.M.

Ex Libris y Bibliotecas de Mexico. By Felipe Teixidor. (Monografias Bibliografias Mexicanas, Mexico, D.F., 1931, No. 20.) A collection of 510 book-plates found in Mexican libraries, the most of which are illustrated as well as described. The appendix adds considerable to the value of the study. The five hundred and fifty pages which comprise the volume are a joy to one interested in books, as well as to the historian, to whom the antiquity of some of the specimens appeal. H.B.M.

Bibliografia de La Revolucion Mexicana. By Roberto Ramos (Monografias Bibliografias Mexicanas, Mexico, D.F., 1931. No. 21; pp. 530). A catalogue of 1925 items relative to the Mexican revolution to be found in eight public libraries, and one Texan library, as well as nine private Mexican libraries and seven public catalogues of bibliography in the Western Hemisphere. Its index, where the works of any one author may be easily located is of prime importance, and the whole work is of the greatest value to the student of Mexican affairs, filling as it does a great need for such a guide. Mr. Ramos may well feel satisfied with the contribution which he has made to Hispanic-American bibliography. H.B.M.

Las Ordenes Religiosas de Espana y La Colonizacion de America. En la Segunda Parte del Siglo XVIII. By P. Otto Mass, O.F.M. (A. G. Belart, Barcelona, 1931, 216 pp.) To the student of church history in America this collection of ecclesiastical orders and materials is of assistance in understanding the situation at the end of the eighteenth century, although not likely to enjoy any popularity in other directions. Too technical to deal with in a limited space, notice must be taken of its existence. H.B.M.

Las Relaciones Diplomaticas Entre Mexico y Hollanda. (Archivo Historico Diplomatico Mexicano, No. 34, Mexico, D.F., 1931, pp. 138.) After a scholarly introduction by Manuel Mestre Ghigliazza, this collection of diplomatic notes, treaties, and conventions between Mexico and Holland during the years 1824 to 1922 forms a valuable source of first-hand information for the student interested in the foreign relations of Mexico. While this work deals with the general course of history, *La Gestion Diplomatica Del Doctor Mora,* (Archivo Historico Diplomatico Mexicano, No. 35, Mexico, D.F., 1931, pp. 207) on the other hand, is an analysis of the diplomatic mission of one man. Dr. Mora was the Mexican ambassador in England in the early years of the nineteenth century. The book is a collection of Dr. Mora's notes and communications with Mexico and with the English diplomats, particularly Lord Palmerston, from 1846 to 1850. Like the notes in the work mentioned above, they are a source of first-hand information. We wish that more such diplomatic materials were published not only in Mexico, but elsewhere.

Stanley Rogers has added to his interesting trilogy on life at sea a fourth volume, entitled *The Pacific* (New York, Crowell, 1931, 254 pp.). This book deals in a chatty entertaining, and informative manner with famous navigators, adventurers, and privateers of the Pacific, describes Polynesia and other Pacific Island groups, and relates some of the author's own interesting experiences in the South Seas. A large number of clever illustrations by Mr. Rogers adds to the general attractiveness of the book.

In thirteen stimulating chapters of the English economist-historian C. Delisle Burns has made an excellent survey of *Modern Civilization on Trial* (New York, Macmillan, 1931, 324 pp.). Professor Burns begins by describing the three stages in civilization: the primitive in Africa; the medieval chiefly in Asia; and the industrial, being transformed into the modern, in Northwestern Europe and America. He then discusses the new industrial revolution which he considers to be one in consumption rather than production, and explains the relationship between modern civilization, with its peculiar methods and demands, and the primitive and medieval civilizations in Africa and Asia. There follow interesting analyses of the Americanization of Europe; dictatorships; modern government, war, peace, education, and production; the arts and sciences, and the standardization of taste. The concluding thirty pages are devoted to the characteristics of modernity. "Modern civilization," believes the author, "is experimentalist; it emphasizes impulse as contrasted with calculation and increases the sense of community."

The Harvard University Press has rendered another service to historians by publishing the Diary of *Frederick MacKenzie Giving a Daily Narrative of His Military Service As An Officer of the Regiment of Royal Welch Fusiliers During the Years 1775-1781 in Massachusetts, Rhode Island and New York* (Cambridge, Mass. 1930. vi, 737 pp.) Lieutenant MacKenzie who was stationed in America during the Revolution kept a diary which for a time was thought to have been lost. Through the efforts of Mr. Allen French much of the document was discovered to be in the hands of Lieutenant-Colonel Frederick MacKenzie a direct descendant of the diarist. Colonel MacKenzie kindly placed it at the disposal of Mr. French and the Harvard University Press. The portion here printed covers the events in Boston from January 5, 1775, to April 30 following the happenings in and about Rhode Island for the years 1776-1778 and New York for the year 1781. Not only are the doings in and about New York described but operations of the fleet and reports of the Yorktown campaign are included. While the diary is strictly professional it is highly informing about things military.

Pre-War America (Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1930. xvii, 586 pp.), is the title of volume three of Mark Sullivan's *Our Times 1900-1925.* Like its predecessors its originality and freshness, its hundreds of photographs, cartoons, drawings, handbills, programs, souvenirs, and advertisements, its reproduction of old songs, slang phrases, and jokes, its description of plays, baseball games and other sports, its biographical sketches of the leading figures who crossed the stage of American life just before the Great War and its inevitable accounts of what was going on in high places, make it one of the most useful of documents for the student of social history. Historian and general reader eagerly await Mr. Sullivan's fourth volume.

In the second volume of *A Systematic Source Book in Rural Sociology* (The University of Minnesota Press, Minne-

apolis, 1931, xiv, 677 pp.) edited by Pitirun A. Sorokim, Carle C. Zimmerman, and Charles J. Galpin, the institutional, functional, and cultural characteristics of the rural social world are considered. In it an attempt is made to combine the quantitative and the qualitative, non-statistical descriptive methods. The chief topics considered are the family, economic organization, extrafamilial education, social control, and comparative rural-urban criminality, immorality and intemperance, religious attitudes and organizations, æsthetic and recreational organization, and rural political behavior. Like its companion, this volume should be extremely useful for college classes that aim at something more than can be derived from the pages of an ordinary text.

Parents, teachers, social workers, and others will find *Farm Children, An Investigation of Rural Child Life in Selected Areas of Iowa* (D. Appleton and Company, New York, 1930, xxii, 337 pp.) by Bird T. Baldwin, Eva Abigail Fillmore, and Lora Hadley extremely useful. This study made to determine the characteristics of farm children in relation to their environment covers every factor bearing on the development of the rural child-family life, economic status, social and recreational facilities, paternal care, and educational opportunities. The study was made by the Iowa Child Welfare Research Station.

Jane Perry Clark's fat monograph *Deportation of Aliens from the United States to Europe* (Columbia University Press, New York, 1931, 524 pp.) explains in great detail the law and its administration under which thousands of aliens are annually sent out of the United States as undesirables. Not only are the numerous reasons for undesirability listed but the actual process of deportation from the apprehension and arrest of the alien through the stages of detention to the final arrival in Europe are set forth. From her study Dr. Clark concludes that our deportation legislation is fragmentary and often conflicting and that it needs simplification and clarification. She also suggests the changes which in her opinion—an opinion based on her study of the actual cases—would not only make the law more workable but far more humane than it is at present. Dr. Clark's volume merits the careful attention of every person interested in bettering the relation between nations and in evolving machinery of government which will not work injustice on men, women, and children merely because they happen to be of alien birth.

Volume IV of the *Records of the Moravians in North Carolina* (North Carolina Historical Commission, Raleigh, 1930, 1494-1926 pp.) covers the years 1780-1783. This volume, edited by Adelaide L. Fries, Archivist of the Moravian Church in America, Southern Province, is divided into three parts. Part I contains two documents which set forth in a rather remarkable manner, the religious and civic ideals of the Wachovia Moravians of the Revolutionary period. Part II is a record of Moravian activities for the years 1780-83. Part III contains a miscellany the most important part of which is the diary of the Bethania Congregation for the year 1779.

BOOKS ON HISTORY AND GOVERNMENT IN THE UNITED STATES FROM OCTOBER 10 TO NOVEMBER 14, 1931.

Listed by Charles A. Coulomb, Ph.D.

AMERICAN HISTORY

Adams, E. D. and Almack, J. C. A history of the United States. N.Y.: Harper; 818 pp.; $1.80.

Bemis, Samuel F. The Hussey-Cumberland mission and American independence. Princeton: Princeton Univ. Press; 203 pp.; $3.50.

Boyd, Minnie C. Alabama in the fifties; a social study. N.Y.: Columbia Univ. Press; 263 pp. (7 p. bibl.); $4.25.

Carman, H. J. and McKee, S., Jr. A history of the United States. Vol. I, 1492-1865. Boston: D. C. Heath; 916 pp.; $4.00.

Diffie, B. W. and Diffie, J. W. Porto Rico; a broken pledge. N.Y.: Nauguard; 287 pp. (13 p. bibl.); $2.00.

Dumond, Dwight L. The secession movement, 1860-1861. N.Y.: Macmillan; 300 pp. (13 p. bibl.); $2.50.

Dumond, Dwight L., editor. Southern editorials on secession. N.Y.: Century; 562 pp.; $4.00.

Durrenberger, Joseph A. Turnpikes; a study of the toll-road movement in the Middle Atlantic States and Maryland. Valdesta, Ga.: Author, 1517 Williams St.; 188 pp. (15 p. bibl.); $2.00.

Ghent, William J. The early Far West; a narrative outline, 1540-1850. N.Y.: Longmans; 422 pp.; $3.50.

Gilpatrick, Delbert H. Jeffersonian democracy in North Carolina, 1789-1816. N.Y.: Columbia Univ. Press; 257 pp. (6 p. bibl.); $4.25.

Henry, Robert S. The story of the Confederacy. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill; 514 pp. (3 p. bibl.); $5.00.

Hulbert, Archer B. Forty-niners; the chronicle of the California trail. Boston: Little, Brown; 357 pp. (10 p. bibl.); $3.50.

Hunt, Rockwell D. California; a little history of a big state. Boston: D. C. Heath; 156 pp.; 88 cents.

Jameson, John F. Dictionary of United States history. Revised edition by Albert E. McKinley. Philadelphia: Historical Pub. Co., 1336 Cherry St.; 885 pp.; $9.50.

Kelly, Clyde. United States postal policy. N.Y.: Appleton; 331 pp.; $2.00.

Rippy, James F. The capitalists and Colombia. N.Y.: Vanguard; 288 pp. (7 p. bibl.); $2.00.

Snedeker, Caroline D. P. The town of the fearless [The story of New Harmony, Indiana]. Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday, Doran; 365 pp. (3 p. bibl.); $2.50.

Thomas, Charles M. American neutrality in 1793. N.Y.: Columbia Univ. Press; 294 pp. (4 p. bibl.); $4.50.

Whitton, Lt. Col. F. E. The American War of Independence. N.Y.: Dodd, Mead; 381 pp.; $5.00.

Wilstach, Paul. Tidewater Maryland. Indianapolis; 383 pp.; $5.00.

Wiltsee. Ernest A. The pioneer miner and the pack mule express. San Francisco, Calif.: Historical Society, 609 Sutter St.; 122 pp.; $4.00.

Wright, Philip G. The American tariff and Oriental trade. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press; 177 pp.; $2.00.

Yardley, John H. R. Before the Mayflower [Early attempts to establish an English colony in Virginia]. N.Y.: Doubleday Doran; 415 pp.; $5.00.

ANCIENT HISTORY

Diez, Ernst, and Demus, Otto. Byzantine mosaics in Greece Hosios Lucas, and Daphni. Cambridge: Harvard Univ. Press; 132 pp.; $8.00.

Dinsmoor, William B. The archons of Athens in the Hellenistic age. Cambridge: Harvard Univ. Press; 585 pp.; $7.50.

Fitzgerald, Gerald M. Beth.-Shan excavations, 1921-1923; the Arab and Byzantine levels. Philadelphia: Univ. of Pa. Press; 117 pp.; $15.00.

Smith, Margaret. Studies in early mysticism in the Near and Middle East. N.Y.: Macmillan; 286 pp.; $5.00.

ENGLISH HISTORY

Foakes-Jackson, Frederick J. The church in England. N.Y.: Macmillan; 126 pp.; $1.25.

Hart, Francis R. The siege of Havana, 1762. Boston; Houghton Mifflin; 54 pp.; $4.00.

Kemp, Sam. Black frontiers; pioneer adventures with Cecil Rhodes in Africa. N.Y.: Brewer, Warren, and Putnam; 287 pp.; $3.00.

Kerr, W. S. The independence of the Celtic Church in Ireland. N.Y.: Macmillan; 163 pp.; $1.40.

McCordock, R. Stanley. British Far-Eastern policy, 1894-1900. N.Y.: Columbia Univ. Press; 376 pp. (11 p. bibl.); $6.00.

Pinkerton, Robert E. Hudson's Bay Company. N.Y.; Holt; 365 pp.; $3.50.

Redford, Arthur. The economic history of England, 1760-1860. N.Y.: Longmans; 230 pp. (7 p. bibl.); $1.40.

EUROPEAN HISTORY

Agabekov, Georges. Ogper, the Russian secret terror. N.Y.: Brentano's; 287 pp.; $3.00.
Barnes, James S. Fascism. N.Y.: Holt; 245 pp. (3 p. bibl.); $1.25.
Cole, Charles W. French mercantilist doctrines before Colbert. N.Y.: Richard R. Smith; 257 pp. (11 p. bibl.); $2.50.
Ergang, Robert R. Herder and the foundations of German nationalism. N.Y.: Columbia Univ. Press; 288 pp. (15 p. bibl.); $4.50.
Gewehr, Wesley M. The rise of nationalism in the Balkans, 1800-1930. N.Y.: Holt; 148 pp. (7 p. bibl.); $1.00.
Gooch, George P. Studies in modern history. N.Y.: Longmans; 390 pp.; $3.00.
Stomberg, Andrew A. A history of Sweden. N.Y. Macmillan; 837 pp.; $8.50.

THE WORLD WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION

Ottosen, Maj. P. H., editor. Trench artillery, A.E.F. Boston: Lathrop; 367 pp.; $3.00.
Wilson, Sir Arnold T. Mesopotamia, 1917-1920. N.Y.: Oxford Univ. Press; 420 pp.; $10.00.

MEDIEVAL HISTORY

Koht, Halvdan. The old Norse Sagas. N.Y.: Norton; 191 pp. (7 p. bibl.); $2.50.

MISCELLANEOUS

Barnes, Franklin. Man and his records. Chicago: Rockwell; 112 pp.; $1.25.
Davis, Emily C. Ancient Americans; the archaeological story of two continents. N.Y.: Holt; 323 pp. $3.50.
Mason, Gregory. Columbus came late [Story of pre-Columbian civilizations in America]. N.Y.: Century; 351 pp. (6 p. bibl.); $4.00.
Young, C. Walter. Japan's special position in Manchuria. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press; 446 pp.; $3.00.

BIOGRAPHY

Galet, Lieut. General. Albert, King of the Belgians in the Great War. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin; 359 pp.; $6.00.
Gribble, Francis H. Emperor and Mystic; the life of Alexander I of Russia. N.Y.: Dutton; 291 pp.; $5.00.
Holmes, T. Rice. The architect of the Roman Empire, 27 B.C.-A.D. 14. N.Y.: Oxford Univ. Press; 192 pp.; $4.75.
Palmer, Frederick. Newton D. Baker; America at War, 2 vols. N.Y.: Dodd, Mead; 435, 461 pp.; $7.50 set.
Russell, Charles E. Blaine of Maine; his life and times. N.Y.: Farrar & Rinehart; 446 pp.; $5.00.
Barnes, James A. John G. Carlisle, financial statesman. N.Y.: Dodd, Mead; 565 pp. (10 p. bibl.); $5.00.
Winkler, John K. Incredible Carnegie. N.Y.: Putnam, 222 pp.; $3.00.
Catherine II, empress of Russia and Voltaire, François M. A. de. Correspondence between Catherine II and Voltaire, and the instruction of 1767 in the English text of 1768. N.Y.: Macmillan; 381 pp.; $5.00.
Bryant, Arthur. King Charles II. N.Y.: Longmans; 459 pp.; $3.50.
Lewis, Dominic B. W. Charles of Europe [Life of the Emperor Charles V]. N.Y.: Coward-McCann & E. V. Mitchell; 367 pp.; $5.00.
Belloc, Hilaire. Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury, 1533-1556. Philadelphia: Lippincott; 333 pp.; $5.00.
Furber, Holden. Henry Dundas, first Viscount Melville. N.Y.: Oxford Univ. Press; 329 pp.; $5.00.
Wortham, Hugh E. Edward VII, man and King. Boston: Little, Brown; 370 pp. (2 p. bibl.); $4.00.
Aubry, Octave. Eugénie, Empress of the French. Philadelphia: Lippincott; 356 pp.; $3.50.
Falk, Edwin A. Fighting Bob Evans. N.Y.; Cape & Smith; 505 pp.; $5.00.
Caldwell, Robert G. James A. Garfield, party chieftain. N.Y.: Dodd-Mead; 394 pp. (9 p. bibl.); $5.00.
Hall, Walter P. Mr. Gladstone. N.Y.: Norton; 275 pp. (4 p. bibl.); $3.00.
Slocombe, George. The white-plumed Henry, King of France. N.Y.: Farrar and Rinehart; 388 pp.; $5.00.
Gaither, Frances. The fatal river; the life and death of La Salle. N.Y.: Holt; 303 pp. (13 p. bibl.); $3.00.
McAdoo, William G. Crowded years; the reminiscences of William G. McAdoo. Boston: Houghton Mifflin; 552 pp.; $5.00.
Tabouis, G. R. Nebuchadnezzar. N.Y.: Whittlesey House; McGraw-Hill; 415 pp. (4 p. bibl.); $5.00.
Davenport, Walter. Power and glory; the life of Boies Penrose. N.Y.: Putnam; 249 pp.; $3.00.
Pringle, Henry F. Theodore Roosevelt; a biography. N.Y.: Harcourt; 637 pp.; $5.00.
Willis, Jack. Roosevelt in the rough. N.Y.: Ives Washburn; 260 pp.; $3.00.
Hergesheimer, Joseph. Sheridan; a military narrative. Boston: Houghton Mifflin; 381 pp. (4 p. bibl.); $4.00.
Restarick, Henry B. Sun Yat Sen, liberator of China. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press; 184 pp.; $2.50.
Simonds, Frank H. They won the war [Review and evaluation of World War leaders]. N.Y.: Harper; 120 pp.; $1.00.
Victoria, Queen of Great Britain. The letters of Queen Victoria, 3rd series; a selection . . . between the years 1886 and 1901. Vol. 2, 1891-1895. N.Y.: Longmans; 621 pp.; $9.00.
Bicentennial notes on George Washington, Nos. 2 and 3. Ann Arbor Mich.: Alumni Press, Univ. of Michigan; 20, 22 pp.
George Washington-Bicentennial Commission. George Washington as a friend and patron of music. Washington, D.C.: Gov. Pr. Off.; Supt. of Docs.; 13 pp.
Knipe, Alden A. Everybody's Washington. N.Y.: Dodd Mead; 290 pp.; $3.50.
Murphy, Mabel A. When Washington was young. Chicago: Laidlow Bros.; 273 pp. (3 p. bibl.); $1.50.

GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS

Cooke, W. H. and Stickney, E. P., editors. Readings in European international relations since 1879. N.Y.: Harper; 1094 pp.; $4.00.
Crawford, Finla G. State government. N.Y.: Holt; 543 pp. (16 p. bibl.); $3.50.
Ewing, C. A. M. and Dangerfield, R. J., compilers. Documentary source book in American government and politics. Boston: D. C. Heath; 843 pp.; $3.48.
Field, Frederick V. American participation in the China consortiums. Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press; 209 pp.; $2.00.
Greaves, H. R. G. The League committees and world order. N.Y.: Oxford Univ. Press; 274 pp.; $5.00.
Jessup, Philip C. The United States and the Permanent Court of International Justice. N.Y.: Carnegie Endowment for International Peace; 86 pp.; 5 cents.
Jones, F. C. Extraterritoriality in Japan and the diplomatic relations resulting in its abolition, 1853-1899. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press; 246 pp. (4 p. bibl.); $3.00.
Keith, Arthur B. An introduction to British constitutional law. N.Y.: Oxford Univ. Press; 243 pp.; $2.50.
McFee, Inez N. C. How our government is run. N.Y.: Crowell; 348 pp.; $2.50.
Merriam, Charles E. The written constitution and the unwritten attitude. N.Y.: Richard R. Smith; 89 pp.; $1.00.
Rappard, William E. The Geneva experiment. N.Y.: Oxford Univ. Press; 115 pp.; $1.75.

Historical Articles in Current Periodicals

COMPILED BY LEO F. STOCK, PH.D.

GENERAL AND MISCELLANEOUS

The International Congress of the History of Science and Technology. Walter Adams (*History*, October).
The Teaching of Economic History in Universities (*Economic History Review*, October). I. Continental.

Second-Hand Men-of-War in 1712-14. R. C. Anderson (*Mariner's Mirror*, October).

Cultural and Religious Influence of Babylonia and Assyria on Western Asia. H. L. Creager (*Lutheran Church Quarterly*, October).

Cicero *Historicus*. B. L. Hallward (*Cambridge Historical Journal*, October).

The Roman Anchors Found at Nemi. Lieut.-Comm. G. C. Speziale (*Mariner's Mirror*, October).

Grecian Influence on Roman Education. A. R. Gleason (*Thought*, December).

Catholicism and the Roman Imperial Cult. J. M. O. Toynbee (*Month*, November).

Julian *versus* Christianity. F. R. Montgomery Hitchcock (*Quarterly Review*, October).

The Hellenism of Clement of Alexandria. R. E. Witt (*Classical Quarterly*, July-October).

Essays in Monastic History, 1066-1215. David Knowles (*Downside Review*, October). II. The Norman Plantation.

A Note on the Fifteenth Centenary of the Death of St. Augustine. N. H. Baynes (*History*, October).

Changing Views of the Renaissance. E. F. Jacob (*History*, October).

Jeanne d'Arc, Patron of Peasants. S. B. James (*Month*, November).

Deposit Banking in Barcelona, 1300-1700. A. P. Usher (*Journal of Economic and Business History*, November).

Conveyance of Property, the Spanish and Mexican Way. L. H. Warner (*New Mexico Historical Review*, October).

The Haaf Fishing and Shetland Trading, 1730-35. R. S. Bruce (*Mariner's Mirror*, October).

Economic Life in Japan, 1600-1868. Yamato Ichihashi (*Journal of Economic and Business History*, November).

South American Balsas: the Problem of Their Origin. James Hornell (*Mariner's Mirror*, October).

BRITISH EMPIRE

Macaulay Annotated. (Literary Supplement, *London Times*, October 29).

The King's Ministers in Pariament, 1272-1377, I. H. C. Richardson and George Sayles (*English Historical Review*, October).

Chapters of the English Black Monks. Adrain Morey (*Downside Review*, October).

The Estates of Normandy Under the Duke of Bedford, 1422-1435. B. J. H. Rowe (*English Historical Review*, October).

The Dates of Foundation of the Early British West Indian Colonies. J. A. Williamson (*History*, October). Historical revision.

Sir Bevis Bulmer: a Large-Scale Speculator of Elizabethan and Jacobean Times. H. M. Robertson (*Journal of Economic and Business History*, November).

The Somerset Election of 1614. Edith Farnham (*English Historical Review*, October).

English Traders at Aleppo, 1658-1756. G. P. Ambrose (*Economic History Review*, October).

The Treasury, 1660-1714. Doris M. Gill (*English Historical Review*, October).

Brihuega, Dec. 9, 1710. Maj. Basil Williams (*Army Quarterly*, October). A chapter from a forthcoming Life of Stanhope.

Eighteenth-Century English Merchants. Elizabeth Donnan (*Journal of Economic and Business History*, November). Especially Micajah Perry.

The Peninsular War. C. T. Atkinson (*Quarterly Review*, October).

Parson Eade in the Crimea, I. Brig.-Gen. Cosmo Stewart (*Army Quarterly*, October). From the diary of a chaplain to the forces.

The *New Lady's Magazine* of 1786. Geoffrey Tillotson (*London Mercury*, October).

The Earl of Peterborough and the Capture of Barcelona. G. M. Trevelyan (*Cambridge Historical Journal*, October).

Lord Stratford de Redcliffe and the Castlereagh-Canning Duel. Harold Temperley (*Cambridge Historical Journal*, October).

Lord Macartney and the Empress Catherine of Russia. W. F. Reddaway (*Cambridge Historical Journal*, October).

Palmerston: Sir Henry Bulwer and the United States. G. F. Hickson and T. D. Ward (*Cambridge Historical Journal*, October).

The Anglo-Egyptian Sudan: a Problem in International Relations. R. W. Logan (*Journal of Negro History*, October).

A Select Bibliography of Irish Economic History. P. L. Prenderville (*Economic History Review*, October).

GREAT WAR AND ITS PROBLEMS

The Entry of Turkey into the War. Lieut.-Col. F. Cunliffe Owen (*National Review*, October).

New Light on Ambassador Dumba's Recall. J. F. J. Archibald (*Current History*, November).

Joffre at the Marne, 1914. (*Army Quarterly*, October).

The French Offensive of the 18th of July, 1918. (*Army Quarterly*, October).

The Battle of Rossignol. Maj. A. H. Burne (*Fighting Forces*, October).

UNITED STATES AND DEPENDENCIES

American Coöperation in International Affairs. E. M. Patterson (*Contemporary Review*, October).

Judicially Non-Enforcible Provisions of the Constitution. W. F. Dodd (*University of Pennsylvania Law Review*, November).

The Navy's Support of Foreign Policy. Lieut. H. A. Rochester (*U. S. Naval Institute Proceedings*, November).

The United States Marine Corps. Maj.-Gen. J. A. Lejeune (*Current History*, November).

The South's Contribution to Science. E. B. Carmichael (*Science*, October 30).

The Form of the American History Examination of the Coöperative Test Service. A. E. Lindquist (*Educational Record*, October).

Essay Examinations and Objective Tests in United States History in the Junior High School. R. B. Weaver and A. E. Traxler (*School Review*, November).

When Spaniards Settled, 1598. Paul Nesbit (*Chronicles of Oklahoma*, September).

Permanent Deposits of Colonialism in American Christianity. A. R. Wentz (*Biblical Review*, October).

British Policy and Colonial Money Supply. C. Nettels (*Economic History Review*, October).

Roger Williams, Apostle of Religious Bigotry. J. M. Ives (*Thought*, December).

The Susquehannah Company, 1753-1803. J. P. Boyd (*Journal of Economic and Business History*, November).

Means of Communication in North Carolina, 1763-1789. C. C. Crittenden (*North Carolina Historical Review*, October).

The Trading Path to the Indians. D. L. Rights (*North Carolina Historical Review*, October).

The Negro and New York, 1783 to 1865. L. H. Hirsch, Jr. (*Journal of Negro History*, October).

Mr. Madison's War. L. M. Hacker (*American Mercury*, November).

A Forgotten Commodore: Thomas Macdonough. Rear-Adm. Livingston Hunt (*U. S. Naval Institute Proceedings*, November).

Aspects of the Monroe Doctrine. W. R. Castle, Jr. (*Harvard Graduates' Magazine*, September).

Educational Pathfinders of Illinois. E. DeW. Jones (*Journal of Illinois State Historical Society*, April).

A Story of Southern Illinois, the Soldiers' Reservation, Including the Indians, French Traders, and Some Early Americans. W. N. Moyers (*Journal of Illinois State Historical Society*, April).

The California Overland Mail Route through Oklahoma. Grant Foreman (*Chronicles of Oklahoma*, September).

The Opening of the Cherokee Outlet (continued). J. B. Milam (*Chronicles of Oklahoma*, September).

Courtship and Marriage Customs in Ante-Bellum North Carolina. G. G. Johnson (*North Carolina Historical Review*, October).